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The Annual Report.

[*Read by the* REV. FATHER RECTOR *at the Prize-giving, 23rd Sept. 1916.*]

It is a matter for deep gratitude to the divine Providence, that while our countrymen and friends at home are under the heaviest scourge that ever struck down upon mankind, we are permitted here in India to carry on our work in almost normal conditions and with undiminished activity and success; that while war is devastating nearly the whole of Europe and the Near East, we who belong to a belligerent power, are left to pursue our usual course with tranquillity and security, as if the whole world were at peace.

This blessing we owe, under God, to the wisdom of the rulers of the mighty Empire to which we are proud to belong, and we cannot but begin this function with a prayer to the God of Hosts that He may be pleased to bless the British arms, for the greater good of the world in general and of India in particular, with victory speedy and complete.

The report for the year 1915-16 which I have the honour and the pleasure to submit, supplies us with other motives of gratitude to Almighty God. It were much, if we had nothing else to say than that this College has struggled through the difficulties that beset every undertaking of this kind; but we are happy to be able to say more; we have not only held our own, but we have also ample reason for satisfaction and encouragement.

Strength and Attendance.

The rolls show the strength of the institution to have been 631 in the Lower Secondary and Primary Department, 593 in the High School, and 988 in the College Department, against 709, 674 and 901 respectively in the preceding year. The increase of the strength in the College Department is due to a rise in numbers in the Honours Courses, from 79 to 110, and in the B.A. classes, from 295 to 342, whereas the Intermediate classes rose only from 527 to 536, that is, were practically stationary.

The attendance decreased by ·47 p.c., but this fall does not exceed the limits of ordinary fluctuations in this matter and calls for no remark.

Changes in the Staff.

Two of our Lecturers, the Rev. F. Basenach S.J., and the Rev. S. Munch S.J., being German subjects, have been

repatriated, and replaced by the Rev. J. Bourdot S.J. and the Rev. J. Vincent S.J., respectively, the former for History, the latter for Botany. Another Assistant, the Rev. Cl. Leroyer S.J., Lecturer in Physics, has been called home by the French Military Authorities and replaced by Mr. R. Srinivasachari B.A. (Honours), a former student. The Rev. J. Mathieson S.J., a former lecturer, has rejoined the English staff after a temporary absence, replacing Mr. W. K. Duthie M.A. Mr. L. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar M.A., lecturer in Mathematics, left the service of the College and was replaced temporarily by Mr. S. Mahadeva Aiyar, B.A. (Hons.). The Rev. J. Revilla S.J., had also left us and his work has been divided between the Rev. J. Caius S.J., the Rev. J. Vincent S.J., and the Rev. E. Munecas S.J.

Public Examinations.

The results obtained in the various Examinations are as follows:

S. S. L. C.

Subjects.	Average for the School.	Average for the Presidency.
A. Group.		
English	35	33
Vernacular Composition:		
Tamil	43	46
Malayalam	44	44
Telugu	38	42
Elementary Mathematics ..	53	42
C. Group.		
History of England ..	36	33
Algebra and Geometry ..	55	42
Physics	47	37
Chemistry	46	41
Tamil	35	39
Malayalam	44	44
Telugu	45	40
Sanskrit	33	40
Latin	21	22
Bk-keeping & Com. Arith..	33	43
Com. Pr. & Geography ..	35	40
Precis-writing & Ind. ..	31	25
S. H. & Type-writing ..	35	34

No. sent up	No. Declared eligible for College course.	Percentage.
180	88	49

UNIVERSITY.

Class.	No. Sent up.	No Passed I	II	III	Tot.	P.C.
Intermediate:						
Group I	75	5	16		21	28
Group II	15	1	2		3	20
Group III	135	6	54		60	44·4
Total	225	12	72		84	37·3
B.A. Pass:						
English	190	—	84		84	44·3
Group I	35	3	27		30	85·7
Group II-A	33	2	19		21	63·6
Group II-B	8	—	1		1	12·5
Group V	94	1	57		58	61·7
Group VI	6	—	4		4	67·7
Total	176	6	108		114	64·2
Honours:						
Branch I	8	—	3	2	5	62·5
Branch II-A	6	1	4	1	6	100
Branch V	13	2	6	5	13	100
Total	27	3	13	8	24	88·8
Preliminary	54				53	98·14

I add a few remarks on the above results. Our Intermediate result is fair, compared with the average of passes in the Presidency. Yet one cannot help being struck by the difference in the percentage of passes in Group (i) and in Group (iii); a difference which I am unable to account for. It is uncontested that there is at least as much talent in Group (i) as in Group (iii), and the tuition and the care bestowed on both groups are the same. How is it, then, that we get 28 per cent for the former and 44 per cent for the latter? *Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas!*

But there is compensation for the low percentage in Group (i). One of our candidates, Mr. R. Rengaswami, heads the University Pass List. Our congratulations to the fortunate student!

The failure is again in English. All our unsuccessful candidates except about 15, are ploughed in English, 25 in English alone. We have again been told that laxity on the part of the Principals of Colleges in admitting crowds of immature and unfit students into the I U. C. is the "*ultima ratio*" of this year's failure. Practically all the can-

didates admitted by me had secured in English 40 per cent or above. It is impossible to believe that over 60% of the boys whose English was satisfactory in the High School should have unlearned it altogether in the Intermediate classes.

The English result for the B. A. Degree is distinctly unsatisfactory. One distressing feature of the failure list is the relatively large number of students who had always been accounted good and had never failed hitherto in public or in College examinations. Another feature is that failures and passes occur in batches, *e. g.*, out of 30 candidates of one group, the first 15 pass all except 3, and the other 15 fail, all except 3. We can only wonder at such results, for it is beyond our power to assign causes for them.

The groups on the whole give very fair results, except Group II-B Chemistry, on which I shall not now comment, and History, with regard to which I should have to make very much the same remarks as I made for English. In Physics, our two first class candidates head the University pass list.

The results of the Final Examination for Honours are very good, except in Mathematics, in which two out of the three that failed to obtain Honours were recommended for the Pass Degree. Our two first class candidates head the list in History. We offer our congratulations to Mr. P. J. Thomas and Mr. K. Ramachandra Rau.

We may say that these results are very satisfactory on the whole, although there are shades in the picture.

Hostels.

We have now five hostels working in our Students' Home, for the following castes or communities: Aiyangars, Tamilian Smarthas, Brahmin Malayalis, Non-brahmin vegetarian Hindus, and Non-brahmin Malayalis, providing in all for about 340 students.

Field Games.

Games as a recreation are fairly popular among students, but there does not seem to be much enthusiasm among them for matches and tournaments.

I have great pleasure to place on record, the institution by our distinguished old student Dr. T. S. S. Rajan, L.R.C.P., M.R.C.S., of a Challenge Football Cup in honoured memory of the late Father Sewell and called at the donor's request the Father Sewell Memorial Cup. Competition for the cup is open to all. It was competed for this year for the first time and won by our own team.

The College Coronation Badminton Shield Tournament was once more the occasion for a splendid display by some of the best teams of the Presidency. The Shield went once more to the Napiers from Madras, and it must be confessed that theirs was a well-won victory.

Hockey is played by our Catholic Boarders, but does not find favour with our Hindu students.

Tennis has been somewhat in the shade, the eclipse being due to the fact that our well-known Tennis champions have left the College, one of whom, Mr. P. S. Sitaraman, is in Mesopotamia. The College tournament was held as usual, and the Rector's medal was won by Mr. T. G. Sanjivi Rayan.

The College Societies and Magazine.

These institutions have been working satisfactorily. The anniversary of the College Union coincided, this year, with the celebration of the Silver Jubilee of the College Literary Society, now developed into a federation of societies. The members of the Union had the singular good fortune to have in their midst, on this occasion, two of the most popular leaders of this Presidency, the Hon'ble Mr. B. N. Sarma, in the chair, and the Hon'ble Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar, Advocate General, who delivered the Anniversary and Jubilee address. I gladly take this opportunity to thank these two gentlemen for their very great kindness in gracing our celebrations with their distinguished presence.

Thanks for the success of the function are also due to the energetic Secretary of the Union for the year, Mr. S. Vaidyanathan.

Libraries.

The College Library now contains close on 10,000 books, and the School Library 5,000. Out of the former the number of books taken out for home reading was 20,000; out of the latter, 11,000. These figures speak for themselves; no commentary need be added.

Museum.

There is nothing to report under this head.

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Before concluding this report, it is my pleasant duty to thank all those that have contributed in any way to the success of the year: to the Staff whose merit and devotion to duty have produced the results I have recorded, and to the friends and the old students of the College who have contributed to our Prize Fund. I cannot omit a special mention of M. R. Ry. S. Rm. M. Ct. Pethatchi Chettiar Avl., Zemindar of Andipatti, whom I have to thank for his handsome donations to the poor students of this College. Nor can I pass under silence the College Poor Boy Fund Committee, which spares no pains to find help for our poor boys, and does effectually help a fair number of them. The last effort put forth by its energetic Secretary is a start in the direction of theatricals, in the hope that the modest coin destined to swell the fund, but which often lies obstinately hid at the bottom of a purse, will be coaxed to come forward by the allurement of an agreeable, useful, and instructive pastime.

Finally, our hearty thanks to the Hon'ble Justice T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar, the President of this function, whose presence we have been fortunate to secure for this day. His presence among us is, I am sure, doubly agreeabe to all, as it affords us the pleasure of the company of a distinguished son of this district—I had almost said of this town—and of a gentleman of tried and recognised merit in a brilliant public career.

The Art of Suggestion in Literature.*

[*By* ERNEST E. BLAU B.A. (17).]

Suggestion is undoubtedly the most powerful, the most elusive, and, the most difficult art of literary style; and its perfect application is the height of art. It is the chief force that holds the eye to the pleasure page; and makes us read on with a shudder or a laugh. As it is true art, the reader does not generally realize its existence. The magician's threads are hidden and we feel only their magical effect. The principles on which the art is based are present, and by examining them we can disclose the sources of its power.

What is it that can mould into the plastic lives of men any impression, any passion of a fellow-man? It is our almost limitless imagination which is chained like a servile giant to the task. In the description of Apollo, Homer suggests the fury and the countenance of the avenging god; the master tosses the picture to the imagination and leaves it there. "And he was like unto the night," are his words. "Like unto the night," whispers the imagination, "the night with its all-engulfing blackness, with its vague hidden terrors and its ominous mystery." To illus-

* From the Georgetown College Journal, Washington, June 116, with thanks and apologies to the Editor and Contributor.

trate this power of common things to summon up visions in the imagination, we need only recall our experiences as children with this same mystic spell of darkness that Homer felt. When we hurried down a lonely forest path by night, or wanted some one to hold our hand till sleep blotted out the darkness, was it not the imagination that discovered terrible beings lurking in the shadow and changed the homely things of daylight into grotesque and awful monsters? The darkness of night blurs out the too confining details, and, with but the suggestion of a something here and there, the imagination freely pictures what that something *might* be.

So in literature, the fundamental fault against suggestiveness is too much detail. Details should serve but as rallying points for the imagination. Let us examine a rather blood-thirsty sketch of a murder in which the writer neither shows you the deed nor tells you it is done. The imagination does both; they are merely suggested by the writer. The example is not cited for its literary qualities, but only to illustrate the art of not saying too much. "The fiend entered the room where the old man was sleeping. Two minutes later a black figure was seen crawling out through the window, and a wet knife dropped to the ground." The two details —"fiend" and "wet knife"— furnish the two points that determine the straight line along which every imagination involuntarily travels. More is not necessary and would detract from the mind's creation, for unessential descriptive information confines, contradicts, confuses and undoes the imaginative image. An expert writer is like an expert *chef*; he knows just how much seasoning to put in. Some is necessary; too much will spoil the dinner.

Suggestion makes the reader himself work out the author's idea. Ushered by a few magical words into the same unbounded thought-land that the writer has enjoyed, the reader tastes of the artist's nectar and thinks it is entirely his own. An image that is conjured up by our own imagination leaves a most vivid and lasting impression upon our minds because our own sensations and experiences are obviously more real to us than are those of others. This fact is made use of by the literary artist, as the greatest source of his power. The able writer does not tell how the thing feels to him; he merely suggests this. He lets us think that the feeling is all our own. Just as the art of suggestion owes its existence to our imagination, so does it owe most of its force to this natural appreciation of our own ideas. Instead of saying, "The wedding was soon after the funeral," Shakespeare lets us infer this by suggesting it in Hamlet's speech, "The funeral-baked meats did coldly furnish forth the marriage tables." We are the more strongly impressed by the fact because we ourselves do infer it.

Besides, suggestion leaves an impression of restrained power upon the reader— an impression that the writer could say more if he chose. Again the artist plays upon human nature. He plays upon its old, old distortion and magnifying of the unknown. It is an ancient trait, this monstering of hidden things, and it has influenced history. Superstition, false religion, and error have dogged its heels. It murdered old, toothless women at Salem, it placed Jupiter upon Olympus, it flattened the world and surrounded it with monsters before Columbus sailed. And art has seized upon a bit of this potential imagining energy to accomplish its end.

Suggestive restraint is especially fitted to persuasive oratory. Brutus, holding Cæsar's will, sweeps the maddened Roman mob into his hand by such restraint:

> "Have patience, gentle friends, I must not read it;
> It is not meet, you know how Cæsar loved you;
> You are not wood, you are not stones, but men."

II.

These, then, are general principles upon which most suggestive power is

based; the art comes in their application. So numerous and different are the means of suggestive writing that we shall examine only the important and common ones.

Tennyson mentions a "bitter wind." Whittier tells of "a hard, dull bitterness of cold." We have tasted a "brown taste" and some of us in moments of slang and enthusiasm have even seen "loud neckties." Yet in none of these vivid combinations is there a jot of sense or meaning if the words are taken in their original and literal significations. They are wholly suggestive. A wind is not bitter, for we do not taste the wind. How, then, do we understand and feel the very sensation that Tennyson felt as he penned this strange expression? A comparison of the phrases shows a common attribute, which reveals the secret; it is *the expression of one sensation in terms of another*. The griping repugnance of a bitter taste, the uncompromising hardness of rock, the dullness of things numb with cold—all these are used to describe the feeling of chill. "Brown taste" is effective because we associate brown things with a sort of woody bitterness. The idea was probably created by the brown color of nuts, burnt foods, and the like.

An appeal to the ear is often made to suggest an idea. We always notice to some extent the sounds of the words we are reading. And these *sounds may be employed to accentuate the thought expressed*, for music hath charms other than those of soothing the savage beast. There are certain magic sounds that seem to hold in themselves a tinge of ancient human pain. Matthew Arnold tells of the ocean bringing "the eternal note of sadness in." As men associate certain sounds with certain emotions, these sounds may be used to recall and stir the emotions.

One or two examples will suffice to show how sounds themselves are commonly and rather mechanically suggested by onomatopœia. A burst of thunder with its double sound—first, the descending, ripping crash and then the booming roar—is suggested in Shakespeare's phrase, "the crack of doom." Coleridge also brings out this effect: "The ice did split with a thunder-fit." "The murmur of innumerable bees" is an admirable use of onomatopœia to suggest a thought.

Appealing to the ear in like manner, *pauses* may be made after words in order to produce certain effects. Coleridge offers an example:

"Day after day, day after day
  We stuck, nor breath nor motion;
As idle as a painted ship
  Upon a painted ocean."

The first line reads into the second where it pauses abruptly after "stuck."

Wonderful passages of *word music* occur in "Guinevere" and "The Passing of Arthur," which must be read entire to be appreciated. This euphony, of which Tennyson is master, is valuable not merely for its beauty; it has also powers of suggestion. There is musical picturesqueness in certain words and word combinations, which lends an atmosphere to their literal meaning. One word often fits an idea better than an exact synonym by reason of this suggestive appeal to sound. "Soundless" produces an effect different from "silent." Shakespeare never uses any other than the form "feverous," which replaces the more common "feverish." Both he and Mrs. Browning prefer "angerly" to "angrily." I quote the following lines from Tennyson's Idylls to show how, even in their unaided state, they create atmospheres of mystic beauty and awaken echoes of emotions by their euphony:

"And on a sudden, lo! the level lake,
And the long glories of the winter moon."

"Who spake? A dream. O light upon the wind,
  Thine, Gawain, was the voice—are these dim cries
Thine? or doth all that haunts the waste and wild
  Mourn, knowing it will go along with me?"

"And the long mountains ended in a coast
  Of ever-shifting sand, and far away
The phantom circle of a moaning sea."

"So all day long the noise of battle rolled
Among the mountains by the winter sea."

We might here mention a mechanical method employed to convey ideas by its influence over the *facial expression.* I do not think we are extorting more art out of Shakespeare's writing than Shakespeare himself put in when we take as an example the famous line, "After life's fitful fever he sleeps well." The alliteration of the five *f*'s could hardly have been accidental. The biting of the lower lip in their pronunciation speaks envy of the dead.

Suggestion underlies all *figures of speech,* which serve merely as aids to stimulate the imagination. We cannot examine every kind of figure, but from the following lines it is evident how readily figures suggest ideas to the imagination: "There's daggers in men's smiles" (Metaphor); "Man is born to trouble as the sparks to fly upward" (Simile); "'Tis an awkward thing to play with souls" (Litotes).

A form of suggestion that is frequently used in modern short-story writing is the *suggestive atmosphere.* Nearly every tale has atmosphere to a greater or less extent, but we are concerned with the atmoshere that is necessary to the story; the atmosphere by which the author deliberately draws a veil over our eyes so that we see things in a strange light. The use of suggestive atmosphere is not confined to the present day English writer. Shakespeare's witches in "Macbeth" are created for an atmosphere. And does not Tennyson succeed in bringing out, by a natural setting, something of the dim feeling of doom that must have struck down into Arthur's soul as he fought that final battle?

> "And there, that day, when the great light of heaven
> Burned at his lowest in the rolling year,
> On the waste sand by the waste sea they closed.
> Nor ever yet had Arthur fought a fight
> Like this last, dim, wierd battle of the west."

The wierd and phantasmal atmosphere that pervades Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner" is perceptible from beginning to end.

Nothing is great or small—neither mountain nor planet nor atom—save by comparison and contrast. By bringing together we distinguish; by association we recognize and know. Therefore *comparison and contrast* are logical means of description, for they suggest unfamiliar things by picturing things well known. Something of this mode of description is employed by Sambo, who describes his son as "so black dat charcoal would make a white mark on his face." The appeal is to the imagination, and the pictures formed by contrast and comparison are wholly suggested. The effect of suddenly turning from one scene to another is impressive if the scenes are contrasted. In Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner" the sudden and frequent shiftings of the scene from the uncanny gloom of the Mariner's presence to the light gaiety of the wedding, and back again, are not accidental; they deepen the sombreness.

Verbs may delicately suggest qualities in nouns. For example, Cordelia, in "King Lear," says, "I cannot heave my heart unto my mouth." In the same play Goneril declares she loves her father "more than words can wield the matter." Both "heave" and "wield" suggest *weight.* We shall appeal again to Coleridge:

> "We were the first that ever burst
> Into that silent sea."

In this vivid two-line description two impressions are conveyed; we feel the dead silence and picture the unruffled calm of the lonely sea. Coleridge has used two kinds of suggestion to produce these two impressions: Onomatopœia causes the first—that of silence; the verb, "burst," conveys the second—that of calm. Not a word is used explicitly to describe this sea as smooth, yet we do not picture it otherwise. The verb, "burst," suggests in a sort of negative manner, a glassy calm; it leaves a vague idea of tautness or brittleness. We speak of a goblet or a bubble bursting; we would hardly describe a dough ball as bursting. So, in the quotation, "burst" gives us the

picture and the sound of the ship's prow rudely breaking through the still water.

III.

The greatest art consists in simplicity and restraint. To leave out the unnecessary; to let the reader work it out—this is the touchstone of power. In the following paragraph from the "Tale of Two Cities" we do not see the guillotine-knife descend; we do not see the knitting women glance up and mutter the victim's number:

"The murmuring of many voices, the upturning of many faces, the pressing on of many footsteps in the outskirts of the crowd, so that it swells forward in a mass like one great heave of water, all flashes away. Twenty-three."

First we look out through the eyes of the condemned man and, as his world "flashes away," the number, "Twenty-three," follows as surely and impassively as a law of nature. Cause and effect alone! With these two, Dickens has suggested a little of the sensation and swiftness of death, a little of the grim and unmoved souls of the women, a little of the nature of the world, which changes not nor notices when one man faces his supreme moment and is snatched away. So, too, Browning suggests the realness and suddenness of death, not by describing it, but by mentioning cause and effect:

"Till God's hand beckoned unawares—
And the sweet, white brow is all of her."

IV.

Predicament creates the lowest type of humour and nearly all humour can be reduced to it. It is the primitive source of laughter and it brings out the primitive instinct of conceit. An infant will laugh if you stand on your head. A cannibal will laugh when his brother sits on a tack. Such predicaments create laughter because they awaken, more or less, a feeling of superiority or immunity in the on-looker. The same feeling is stirred also by higher forms of humour, which depend more upon the imagination and intellect. It is the work of suggestion, therefore, to make us feel this self-superiority, for suggestion is the writer's most powerful means of appeal to the inner self of his reader. As nearly all humour can be ultimately traced to predicament, it is predicament that, in most cases, must be brought strongly before people. Predicament embraces the foolishness, stupidity, awkwardness, ill-luck, or the like, of another person. As said before, we laugh at such things when they are inconsequential because they make us feel superior.

From those who are not unlettered, their own mental conceptions and their own ability to connect cause with effect will often provoke a laugh. Thus the humour of the following extract from Jerome K. Jerome is due, not only to predicament, but also to our pleasure in being able to discover a connection between events:

"Harris, seizing on what he considers to be a favorable opening in the music, starts singing in a high falsetto voice. A nervous old lady near the fire has to be led out."

No worded description could give a better impression of the song than this suggestive appeal to the imagination.

Other examples from Jerome will serve to show how the author pretends to possess a weak-minded simplicity of nature by treating a tow-line as a thing of life and cunning, and by taking an absurdity seriously. He suggests his silliness and we smile:

"There is something very strange and unaccountable about a tow-line. You roll it up with as much patience and care as you take to fold up a new pair of trousers, and five minutes afterwards, when you pick it up, it is one ghastly, soul-revolting tangle. I do not wish to be insulting, but I firmly believe that if you took an average tow-line and stretched it out straight . . . ."

"The wind carried a whiff of the cheese full on to our steed . . . . . . , and before we reached the end of the street he was laying himself out at the rate of nearly fourteen miles an hour, leaving the

cripples and the stout old ladies simply nowhere."

It is always humorous to see a pompous or otherwise ridiculous literary character treated seriously. The reader feels that he has been able to uncover the real traits of the man while the writer is deceived. It thus places both author and character in predicaments. The humour of Dickens is famous for such character studies. So he depicts Mr. Bumble in "Oliver Twist."

V.

In the "Idylls of the King," Guinevere's heart-broken cry after Arthur, is flooded with feeling because of the suggestiveness of a broken cry.

> "Then she stretch'd out her arms and
> cried aloud,
> 'O, Arthur!' there her voice broke suddenly."

Ejaculations are the spontaneous utterances of emotions and they therefore suggest emotions. The uttermost depths of the soul may be poured and condensed into one of them. Especially is the little word 'O' mightily suggestive. King Lear cries in beseeching anguish to Regan, "O Regan!" and in dread suspicion of her falsity, "O me, my heart, my rising heart!" Wordsworth has also crowded emotion into an ejaculation:

> "But she is in her grave and oh,
> The difference to me!"

When the doctor in "Macbeth" hears the sleeping Lady Macbeth disclose her guilt, he mutters the suggestive words, "Well, well, well—." What a depth of thought and feeling they contain!

VI.

Running all through Shakespeare's tragedies is anticipation of what may come. He lights the future dimly and, in that half light, shadows become grotesque and terrible; by this he sustains our interest. Thus *future events may be suggested for dramatic purposes.* Lear cries, "O let me not be mad, not mad, sweet heaven!" It is his own anticipation of madness—the depth of tragedy. Macbeth, who thought he heard the voice cry, "Sleep no more!" hints from that moment the shattering of his happiness and peace, the racking of conscience, and the furies of Revenge.

The "Ancient Mariner" purposely begins with abruptness:

> It is an Ancient Mariner,
> And he stoppeth one of three.
> "By thy long gray beard and glittering eye,
> Now wherefore stopp'st thou me?"

The tale starts suddenly, like a phantom appearing in a dream. No introductions usher in our sleep-phantoms; they come abruptly out of the void to play their chimerical parts. So Coleridge has begun his wierd recital by suggesting an atmosphere that is increased as the tale progresses.

VII.

We might add to these varieties of suggestion several examples which hardly come under any one of them, but which exemplify powerful and pure suggestion.

The futility of men's ambitions; the insignificance and pettiness of their lives against the background, Time! the inexorability of Nature—these are the impressions left by examples such as the following. They suggest greater thoughts than the words express. They may open our minds to communion with Immensity. Hamlet says, "A man may fish with the worm that hath eat of a king, aud eat of the fish that hath fed of that worm."

VIII.

Such then being the quality of suggestiveness, this simplicity and leaving out of things, this portrayal of only what is necessary, why cannot every person apply it? Why does the untrained writer deliberately pour in unneeded details, choke suggestion, and weaken his work? Simply because he is untrained. Only a knowledge of human nature can give a basis on which to write well; only practice can decide how much is best left unsaid. For knowledge of nature and experience are the pillars of literary art.

Addison as a Humorist.

[*By* N. SURIANARAYANAN, *II U. Class.*]

Humour is the faculty of perceiving and representing the ludicrous with unaffected geniality, kindliness, and good nature. It is the harmless degradation of the lesser incongruities of life. It is sympathetic laughter at the foolish extragavances of a Don Quixote, at the prosaic absurdities of a Sancho Panza, at the oddities of a Scott's Bradwardine, at the clownish merry-devil Launcelot, at the eccentricities of a Dr. Primrose, at the huge animalism of the gasconading Falstaff. It is marked by the warmth of fellow-feeling, by the fulness of the milk of human kindness, and by the absence of a sneer or a snarl. Satire, properly so-called is the condemnation of the foibles of men, with bitter feelings, scorn and contempt, even with passionate indignation, malice, and sarcasm. Its chief characteristic is personal dislike and contempt. It is offensive caricature. Both the humourist and the satirist laugh at folly, but with different feelings; the one with kindliness and benevolence, the other with bitterness and malevolence.

The following brief passage from Swift may serve as an example of satire on critics:

Hobbes clearly proves that every creature
Lives in a state of war by nature.
The greater for the smaller watch,
But meddle seldom with their match.
A whale of moderate size will draw
A shoal of herrings down its maw;
A fox with geese his belly crams;
A wolf destroys a thousand lambs.
But search among the rhyming race,
The brave are worried by the base.
If on Parnassus' top you sit,
You rarely bite, are always bit.

. . . .

The vermin only tease and pinch
Their foes superior by an inch.
So naturalists observe, a flea
Hath smaller fleas that on him prey;
And these have smaller still to bite 'em,
And so proceed *ad infinitum.*
Thus every poet in his kind
Is bit by him that comes behind:
Who, though too little to be seen,
Can tease, and gall, and give the spleen.

Very different from this belittling, contemptuous satire of Swift is the humourous satire of Addison, of which the most striking feature is the absence of malice and contempt. For the task he undertook, 'that of bringing philosophy out of closets and libraries to dwell at tea-tables and in coffee-houses,' this kindly satire stood him in good stead. He wrote in an age when people were influenced by the Restoration tradition of rather loose-living and loose-thinking, and by Puritanical fanaticism and bigotry. He attempted a reformation, and his success was in a great measure due to the way in which he exposed the foibles of men. He did not indulge in sweeping condemnations and invectives, nor did he hold up his victims to ridicule for the mere gratification of his malice. He did not use his power of ridicule as a bludgeon to wound, but as a gentle wand to arouse the consciousness of folly. He was a gentle satirist, who smiled at the frailties of men, at their whims and caprices, and at their ignoranee and vulgarity. If at any time real excess or vice moved him to sharpness, he took off the edge with 'ingenuity of wit, elegance of language, and kindliness.'

Addison was free from personal animosity. In the whole of his works, no passage bears the stamp of a lampoon or personal satire. When he saw a blemish in any one, he did not level his criticism directly at the individual, nor make a caricature of him but described in a fictitious example a class of persons of such a disposition. For instance, Tom Folio is a type of those "that glorify the outward details of scholarship while incapable of appreciating its inner spirit'. By this general treatment, Addison kept the object of his shafts out of view, and avoided all enmity and discord.

Along with the geniality and amiability of his humour, there runs a vein of deep solemnity, nobleness and grace. Addison never falls into vulgarity; his ridicule is always on the side of good sense and learning, of virtue and religion. He handles his embodiments of folly and weakness, not with indifference, but with a naïve and solemn tenderness. Beneath the French lightness, grace, elegance, and sprightliness of his essays, there is an abiding feeling of sincerity, and an endeavour to raise his readers to a purer and more elevated atmosphere.

Examples are not wanting to illustrate these qualities of his humour. Every paper he contributed to the *Tatler* and the *Spectator* teems with characteristic humour.

The merit of his characters lies in the inimitable subtility with which they are portrayed. They are represented as belonging to different classes of society, and are individualized with the principles, the predilections, and foibles of the time. Will Honeycomb's charm is his gallantry. His great concern is the fashions of women; the way they curl their hair, and place their hoods, their patches, petticoats, etc., and all such trivialities. Will is a bit absent-minded at times, and throws his watch into the Thames, and puts into his pocket the pebble he had in his hand. Andrew Freeport, a London merchant, abounds in frugal maxims,—'A penny saved is a penny got'. 'The Templar has chosen his place of residence in the Inner Temple, rather to obey the directions of an old prudent father than in the pursuit of his inclination;' he 'knows the argument of each of the orations of Demosthenes and Tully, but not one case in the reports of the law courts'. Tom Touchy 'is famous for taking the law of every body'. There is poor, idle, aimless Will Wimble too, 'who lives with his brother as a superintendent of his game, is extremely well-versed in all the handicrafts of an idle man; a good-natured and officious fellow', far more interested in the pursuits and enjoyments of the world than in the world of learning and politics. He delights to carry a tulip-root in his pocket from one to another, or exchange a puppy between a couple of friends that live perhaps on opposite sides of the country. He is an example of busy idleness. Addison gave each of these characters some touch of the bad taste prevailing in society. They are caricatures, but of no one in particular. They do not offend, but amuse by their charming little follies. Such is Addison's polite ridicule.

The central figure of the *Coverly Papers*, Sir Roger, is a marvellous character. Besides many fascinating good qualities, Addison gives him many charmingly ludicrous little weaknesses and eccentricities that add to the realism of the portrait, and entertain us all the more. Narrowed in views and experience of life by converse with men of his own class or in dependence on him, and by a disappointment in love, he has no sense of proportion, and his singularities and oddities make us laugh at him and love him. A few illustrations. At church he allows nobody to fall asleep. If by chance he himself has been surprised into a short nap, he recovers with much ado; if any one else should happen to dose, he wakes him or sends a servant to wake him. If the music of a verse pleases him, he sings it on half a minute longer than the congregation. He is quite pleased with children who answer their catechism well, and gives them each a Bible for themselves and half a flitch of bacon for their mothers. When he passes through the aisles of Westminster Abbey, and sees the various monuments of heroes, he exclaims, "A brave man, I warrant him!" "Sir Cloudsly Shovel, a very gallant man!" "Dr. Bushby, a great man! He whipped my grandfather. A very great man! I should have gone to him myself, if I had not been a blockhead. A very great man!" He seats himself in the coronation chair, and is embarrassed when the interpreter asks him to pay the forfeit for doing so. On seeing the mutilated figure of one of the English

kings, he gives vent to his party prejudices: "Some Whig, I will warrant you; you ought to lock up your things better; they will carry off the body too, if you don't take care." In this way Addison humourously introduces and satirises the narrowness and conservatism of country squires.

The behaviour of the knight in the playhouse on the night of 'The Distressed Mother' is particularly amusing. The scene in which the widow Andromache refuses the hand of her lover brings to the recollection of Sir Roger the perversity of his widow, and throughout the play he whispers in the ear of the *Spectator*, "You can't imagine, sir, what it is to have to do with a widow." "These widows, sir, are the most perverse creatures in the world." May we not join with Thackeray in saying, "Out of these harmless eccentricites and follies, and out of that touched-brain, and honest manhood, and simplicity we get a result of happiness, goodness, tenderness, pity, and piety such as doctors and divines but seldom have the fortune to inspire".

Again, in his *Tatler* No. 163 we have a merry criticism on 'the pretty poets' of the day. Ned Softly is a versifier, and has a great admiration for Waller. He knows all the bad lines of that author by heart, and interlards his conversation with frequent quotations of them. He revels in epigrammatic quibbles and conceits. Ned Softly reads a paper of silly verses to Bickerstaff and solicits his criticism. Bickerstaff praises the production, its epigrams and metaphors, as worthy of a great poet. Softly takes the bait, and begins himself to dilate on the merits of his verses—their rhythm, liquid sounds, and classical allusions. Bickerstaff with assenting nods adds warmth and encouragement to the self-laudation. Thus the pretensions of Ned Softly are brought into bold relief. We enjoy his absurd vanity, and also realise the emptiness of all Suffenuism.

Addison's papers criticising the fashions of women are very amusing. The paper (*Spectator* No. 323) in which he gives in detail a week's diary of Clarinda, describes the life 'of fashionable gaiety and laziness' led by the aristocratic women of the day. For want of space we must pass it by without quoting, and conclude with a brief reference to the witty and playful essay on fans.

The essay on fans (*Spectator* No. 102) is a typical instance of the vivacity of Addison's humour. It is an amiable satire upon the coquettes who affected graces with their fans. An academy had been established for the training of young ladies in the use of the fan. The instructor taught them how to handle, unfurl, discharge, ground, recover, and flutter their 'little modish machine'. He exercised them in the angry flutter, the modest flutter, the timourous flutter, the merry flutter, and the amorous flutter of the fan. The language is also forcible and piquant.

"Women are armed with fans as men with swords and sometimes do more execution with them."

"I have seen a fan so angry that it would have been dangerous for the absent lover who provoked it to have come within the wind of it."

It is chiefly upon the excellence of this humour that Addison's fame as a writer rests. It is this humour that two centuries ago enlivened thousands of breakfast tables in England, and keeps 'The Essays' in our hands to-day. It is this humour which, without causing enmity, lashed folly and frivolity, and worked a genially improving influence on the morality of the day.

Snake Charmers and Snake Catchers.

One morning, towards the end of August, two snake-charmers presented themselves at the College, and offered to catch the ' bad ' snakes there might be in our compound. To all appearances, the operation, performed in the usual way, was a complete success: the bag contained four cobras and one *Daboia* or *Russell's viper*.

The performance raised once more the moot question: Were these genuine catches, or had the snakes been thrown into the compound previously by the two compeers? In other terms: Is snake catching, as usually witnessed in India, jugglery or skill? I will not attempt, nor do I hope to settle the question once for all. I will only state some facts, chosen among many, because the witnesses from whom I got them are trustworthy, (an important condition in forming a judgment in this matter), or because I was myself an eye-witness of them.

I.

Last year one of the Fathers of the College—let us call him Father X—was staying with some boys at A, a small village 10 miles from Trichinopoly. One afternoon, some of the boys went for a walk to B, another small village a few miles from A. At B, they witnessed a performance by snake charmers. On returning to A, the same evening, they related to Fr. X and their companions what they had seen, and it was decided they should send for the snake charmers the next day, and ask them to catch the snakes, if any, in the neighbourhood. Accordingly, some boys went out early the next morning, and returned at 10 A.M., with the snake charmers. These were asked to strip themselves and show what snakes they had with them. They had 3 cobras. They were taken to a pile of wood, near a large stone building, a likely haunt for reptiles. Presently a cobra was captured. From there they were taken to another place distant one furlong or so from the heap of wood. On their way they suddenly espied a cobra and secured it. In the new place they caught two more snakes. They then said they would not catch any more snakes, but were however prevailed upon to try their skill on another field, near a hedge of cactus (கள்ளி). Here one more snake was caught. After this they absolutely refused to catch more. The bag included 3 cobras and 2 *Russell's* or *Daboia vipers* (கண்ணாடி விரியன்), which, added to the 3 snakes they had brought with them, made a total of 8. The eight snakes were duly exhibited and counted.

During this exhibition, one of the charmers was bitten by a cobra, but applied the well-known black stone to the bite. The stone first adhered to the bitten limb, and fell off after about 8 minutes, after which the man went about as if nothing had happened.

In this performance, the following points are to be noted:

(i) The charmers were not aware they were going to be called.

(ii) They were taken to unknown places, pretty distant from one another, in a direction opposite to the one from which they had come.

(iii) The capture of the second cobra looks suspicious.

(iv) The charmers seem to dread vipers. Anyhow they do not deal with them so readily as they do with cobras.

(v) Fr. X unhappily did not examine the captured snakes, to ascertain if they had their fangs. The presence of fangs would not however prove conclusively that the snakes captured were not snakes previously kept in captivity by the charmers, brought with them somehow or other (charmers are admittedly skilful enough to keep about them fanged cobras), and dropped somewhere near the place in which they were caught. Still, the presence of the fangs is a particular of some importance.

(vi) Therefore the bite inflicted on the charmer proves nothing.

II.

In May last, while we were up at Kodaikanal, and two Professors, Father S. and Father V., were at the College here, a snake charmer presented himself uncalled for and volunteered to catch cobras if there were any in the place. He would have nothing to do with vipers. He had in his basket two specimens of the *Gongylophis Conicus*.

As a cobra had been found one afternoon in one of the bathing rooms close by, the man was allowed to try his skill, and began operations. He very soon declared there was certainly a cobra in the neighbourhood, for he felt his musical instrument was "bound" (மகுடி கட்டுகிறது) as charmers say, which, according to them, proves the presence of a cobra: an explanation readily accepted by the ignorant onlookers. In fact, a cobra was soon perceived in the grass close by, and captured. The charmer got himself bitten, applied the stone, and sure enough, got all right again. But the two Professors were not so easily imposed upon. One of them is quite certain that the self-inflicted bite was made with the mandibular teeth. They asked to see the fangs of the cobra. The charmer first refused to show them; when pressed, he showed the teeth of the lower jaw.*

The man then broke off the performance. Here note:—

(i) The charmer came uncalled for.

(ii) He said there was surely a snake in the place.

(iii) The specimen captured was suspicious.

(iv) The charmer would not attempt any further catch.

III.

The story that follows is the event alluded to at the beginning of this article. I was an eye-witness throughout. I may say, without incurring the reproach of self-praise, that I know something about snakes, having caught and handled many with my own hands, including cobras and vipers, and kept snakes of all kinds in captivity for years. Yet I am not a snake charmer.

On 29th August, at 7-30 A.M., two charmers offered their services. The offer was accepted, and they were taken into the garden. We made them open their basket, their bags, and blankets, to make sure they had no cobra with them. They had only one young specimen of *Gongylophis Conicus*, the much dreaded two-headed snake, which is really quite a harmless reptile. †

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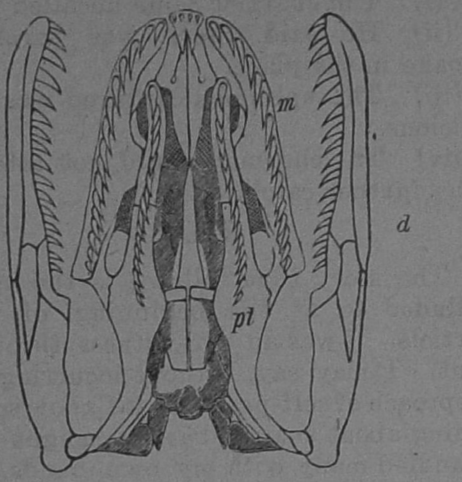
* The normal dentition, in snakes, includes six rows of teeth, four in the upper palate, two in the lower. The two rows of teeth in the lower jaw are called the mandibular teeth. Of the four rows in the upper palate, the two outer ones are called the maxillary, the two inner ones the palatine teeth.

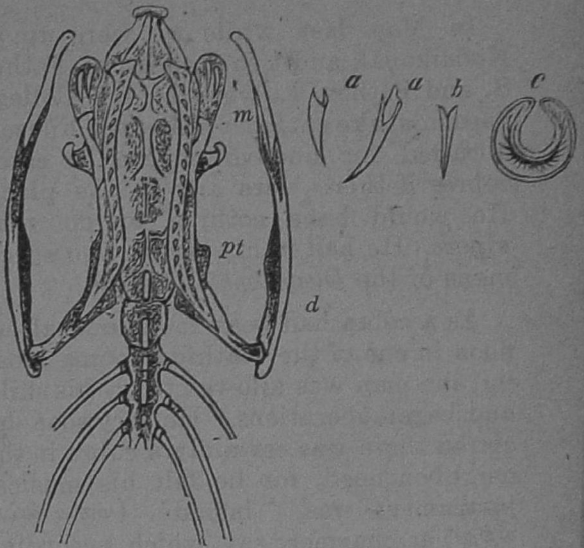
The fangs are tubular or grooved teeth, their peculiar construction being intended to provide a passage for the poison to flow through the tube or the groove into the wound made by them. They are generally much larger than the ordinary teeth, are always found in the maxilla, i.e., on the two outer rows of the upper palate, whether or not accompanied by ordinary teeth. From this description, it is evident that only poisonous snakes possess fangs. Of the poisonous snakes commonly met with in the plains, the cobra and the krait (*Bungarus Cæruleus*) have grooved fangs, and other maxillary teeth; the *Daboia viper* and the *Echis Carinata* (சுருட்டை விரியன்) have tubular fangs, and no other maxillary teeth. (See plate, Fig. 1, 2 & 3.)

† The roller snakes, so called on account of their shape, belong to a class better known by its large representatives, the pythons and the boas. They are short, stumpy snakes with a short, sometimes blunt tail, which, as popular fancy has it, resembles the head. Hence the difficulty to make "head or tail" of them, and hence the name "the two-headed snakes," இருதலை பாம்பு. These reptiles are also called sand snakes and are commonly found near rivers. Several families of this tribe found exclusively on the Hills, are burrowing snakes, and live in the soft earth and in vegetable decaying matter (*Silybura, Plectrurus*, etc.) Two-headed snakes are really harmless. They have fine complete rows of teeth but no fangs. Yet folklore, or rather popular ignorance, depicts them as dreadful creatures that sting with their tails; their very touch gives leprosy. I kept one of them (*Eryx Johnii*) captive for months and handled it freely. According to my young taxidermist (who sedulously refrained from touching it), my fingers were to have been attacked by a fearful malady like leprosy, were to have dried up and fallen off in five years time. Twenty years have now gone by, and the fingers I should have lost fifteen years ago are now writing these lines.



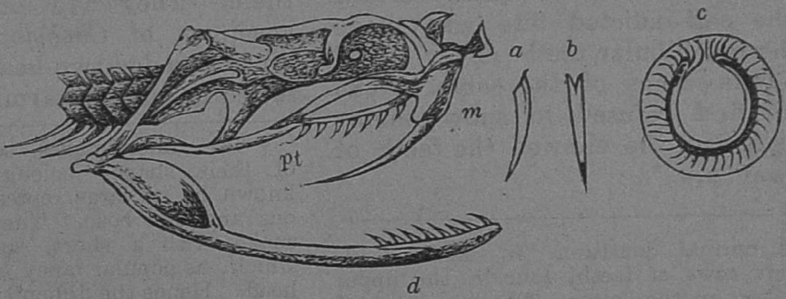
1. **Skull of the Python, lower view (complete dentition.)**

d lower jaw or mandible.
m upper jaw or maxilla.
pt inner or palatine and pterygoid teeth.



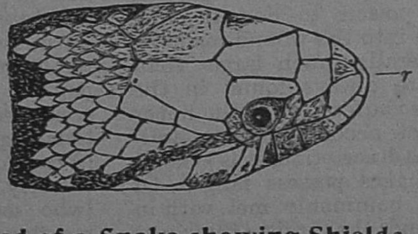
2. **Skull of the Cobra, lower view.**

d, m, pt as in 1; but the mandible being seen from below, the mandibular teeth are invisible.
a, a′, b, the poison fang.
c section of the fang.



3. **Skull of the Daboia Viper, side view.**

d, m, pt, as in 1 and 2. *a, b*, fang, *c*, section of the fang.



4. **Head of a Snake showing Shields.**

r, rostral.

We went to the corner between the church and the compound wall. In less than 5 minutes a cobra came out and was bagged. It was a fine specimen. It may obviously have been thrown over the wall from the street, previously.

While putting it into his basket, the charmer said there was another cobra somewhere to the north of the place where we stood; he could smell or feel its presence. We proceeded to the north, and soon a *Daboia viper* was discovered in the grass, near two old tree stumps.

This viper was one of the finest specimens I have ever set eyes on,—stout, fat, with a new shining coat on. In my opinion, it was too fine to have been a captive snake. I saw its fangs; there could be no mistake about them. The charmers were very cautious in handling it.

Next, in the adjoining tope, amid thick shrubs two or three feet high, near heaps of refuse, a fine cobra, with genuine fangs, fell a captive to the *magoodi*. The men seemed very particular about catching something in that place; they were positive there was a cobra there; they felt the check or stop on their music, caused by the presence of the snake. I told them there were more cobras in that tope, they had been seen, etc. They started and squealed away round the tope, but to no effect. They asserted there were no snakes there any longer.

We next proceeded to the tope between the church and the Fathers' house, where two cobras had been seen by our servants on different occasions. A cobra soon fell a victim to the "*magoodi*", and was secured near the canary house.

But, east of this spot, along the wall that runs between the Fathers' house and the church, there were several suspicious heaps of cocoanut shavings, leaves, and leaf-stalks, the very place for cobras We took one of the charmers thither, the other one being busy with the cobra just captured. The former started his "*magoodi*," but soon declared there was no cobra there; his "*magoodi*" did not feel it. Our servants asserted there was one, that they had seen it, etc. The charmer contended it was one of the cobras already captured in some other part of the garden, that snakes travelled at night, etc. But his reasons were summarily rejected, and he was ordered to proceed with his operations, along with the other juggler who had come up by that time. After some discussion, they consented to go on with their music. They scoured the whole place high and low, going over the cocoanut heaps, at first still protesting it was all useless, that there were no snakes. Eventually, they began to change their mind, and finally they declared there was a cobra in the heap; their "*magoodi*" was "bound." In fact, the head of a cobra was soon seen emerging out of the cocoa shavings. The reptile was promptly secured. After this, they refused pointblank to go on any longer, and remained obdurate against all coaxing. Thereupon I left them as it was time for breakfast. But I returned after breakfast and insisted there were more cobras in the cocoanut tope to the west, which they had to catch, else I would say their performance was mere trickery; that the captured snakes had been thrown over the wall by them at night, etc. They followed me into the garden very reluctantly, played all round the alleys, but finally went on strike, saying there were no more snakes, and inviting me to come and witness their performance (வேடிக்கை) with the snakes they had caught. I left them, caring little for their வேடிக்கை, and went to my work.

In this performance we have to note the following points:

(i) The charmers presented themselves uninvited.

(ii) They had only one basket with them, and the basket contained nothing but a young roller snake, the so-called two-headed serpent.

(iii) I have no reason to believe they had other snakes with them hidden in their clothes or other belongings.

(iv) It is not impossible that some of the snakes were thrown into our garden previously; but

(v) at least some of the snakes captured had genuine fangs.

(vi) The viper does not appear to have been a captive snake thrown into the place previously.

(vii) Two of the cobras were known inhabitants of the compound.

(viii) The unwillingness of the charmers with regard to the last cobra, viz., that in the cocoanut heap, and the relative difficulty to bring it out, seem to point to a genuine catch.

(ix) Five snakes is a rather large consignment for one single basket. If the whole affair was trickery and nothing else, *i.e.*, if the charmers had ex-expected to catch five snakes, they would probably have brought more baskets than one.*

Therefore, I am inclined to conclude, that the least we can say is that, if there was jugglery, there was also skill; if some of the snakes were captive snakes previously let loose by the jugglers in our compound, some at any rate were apparently wild snakes. Yet the refusal of the charmers to continue operations after 9-30 A.M., leaves a door open to doubt and suspicion.

IV.

A few days after the event just narrated, another snake charmer, the author of the performance of the month of May, presented himself at 8 A.M. He was taken into the garden, to the tope between the Fathers' house and the church, in which two cobras had been caught a few days before. Hardly had he started his music when he descried a cobra in the grass some ten yards away. He captured it. The catch looked suspicious. I asked to see the cobra and was surprised, or rather amused, to find that it had lost its rostral shield. ||

Snakes at large are never without a rostral shield. But cobras kept in captivity lose it very easily. Put a cobra in a glass box. At the beginning, it is very fierce, and whenever some one comes near and looks at it, it strikes at the side of the box, in the direction of the visitor. After a few such blows, its nose begins to bleed, and the shield that covers it falls off. Experience teaches the cobra prudence and patience, and after a time it refuses to be disturbed, whatever the indiscretion of the visitor.

I next asked to see the fangs. The charmer seemed rather to resent the request, and tried to evade it. On being pressed he pretended to show the fangs, but showed the mandibular teeth (*i.e.*, lower jaw). This would not do. He was asked to show the upper teeth. He cleverly twisted the upper lip of the snake, and showed not the fangs, but the middle rows of the upper palate teeth (palatine teeth). I took out my penknife and with the thick edge of the blade felt for the fangs. There were none. This obliging reptile had been so kind as to have its fangs extracted to spare us dangerous encounters. The truth is it was a "shaven" cobra, in other words, a captive snake. Its fangs had been removed by the juggler. The fraud was patent. The charmer was ignominiously turned out of the premises.

* One more point might be added. There is certainly at least one cobra still at large in the place. It was seen in October on the southern stone stairs leading up to the Fathers' house, at 1-30 p.m. Unhappily it escaped before we could catch it.

|| The body of snakes is covered with scales. In most snakes, the scales covering the head are larger than the scales that cover the back and sides of the body, and they do not overlap one another. These scales are called shields. The rostral shield is the one that covers the tip of the nose or snout. (See plate, Fig. 4.)

The Lalgudy Educational Exhibition.

[*Held at Trichinopoly, 16-23 September, 1916.*]

When the project of holding an Educational Exhibition at Lalgudi was first mooted in April 1916, many wise men shook their heads and prophesied that it would go the way of all such projects, or would at best end in empty show and hollow talk. To tell the truth I myself was not quite free from such forebodings. I did not know Mr. Parthasarathi Naicker.

A programme came out in print. It was ambitious. Great names were put down for lectures, for the chair; exhibits were invited under a score of sections or more. How was Lalgudi to give hospitality to so many personages, to so many visitors, to so many exhibits? The organizers bethought themselves of the difficulty in good time, and decided to hold the Exhibition in Trichinopoly. The move was in the right direction, and it permitted the project to assume the dimensions which it eventually took.

People still inclined to be sceptic had only to peep into the Lawley Hall, St. Joseph's College, on the morning of the 16th September, and to walk through the rooms of the National High School. The Lawley Hall was filled from end to end by a motley crowd of visitors,—officials, vakils, teachers, students,—all eager to witness the opening of the Exhibition and the inauguration of the lectures, under the patronage of the Hon'ble Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Aiyar. Day after day, morning and evening, the stream of visitors flowed in and out, in varying volume, in proportion to the interest aroused by the subjects of the lectures among the various classes of the public, and to the repute of the lecturers and of the gentlemen who occupied the chair on the various occasions. Each lecture was useful and interesting in its own way, and the lecturers deserve the thanks of the public for their work.

But the interest of the Exhibition centred in the National High School, where the exhibits were on view. The class rooms and the Saraswathi Hall were filled to overflowing; the exhibits were in fact too numerous for the available accommodation. The stream of visitors never ceased for a full week; it included members of all the classes of society. Indian ladies were conspicuous by their numbers and the interest they manifested.

It would be difficult to give an adequate description of the show, but as one walked through room after room, and watched the eager visitors and the keen exhibitors scanning the features of judges and visitors, anxious to detect in them approval or praise, one could not resist the impression that the organizers had not misjudged their public, and that they had correctly estimated their chances of success.

There were to be seen the products of human activity in a number of directions, in a variety of stages, and on all the scales of success. From Government agencies like the Agriculture and the Forest Departments, from European firms of long standing and established repute, like Longmans, Macmillan, Singer, etc., through indigenous enterprise in almost every line, and educational institutions of every kind and every grade, down to the humble village teacher, anxious to invite attention to his modest, sometimes naïve, but always praiseworthy endeavours to adapt and convey his lesson to the infant mind, down to the little boy or the little girl of the primary standard trying its unskilled hand at writing and drawing—thousands contributed to the show. Drawings by students, teachers, artists, loomed large in most of the rooms. Among them, the life-size portrait of M. R. Ry. S. Rm. M. Ct. Pethatchi Chettiar, and the landscape by our Junior Intermediate student R. Venkataraman, attracted deserved attention and were each awarded a gold medal. Father Newton

monopolised almost a whole room for his museum and apiculture exhibits. With regard to the latter, he was "*facile princeps*", there being no competitor in the bee line; while in the former, he was as easily "*above class*," having at his disposal what nobody except the Madras Government Museum has,—the spoils of nature accumulated by him and by his predecessors during the last 30 years and more. The Girls Schools were largely and creditably represented, and carried away many prizes. A unique performance—many say the "*Treat*" of the Exhibition—was the Swedish Drill of the two R. C. Primary Schools, Cuddalore, executed under the direction of Father Gaston, who was in charge of the drill, and of Father Drouhin, in charge of the band. The performers were all young boys, some of whom not more than eight years old, and of the type of the little urchins we see sprawling in the dusty streets. The musicians were not much older, except one who seemed to be an assistant conductor, nor of a much higher station in life. The onlookers could not but wonder how such results were got out of such material, and were lost in amazement when they tried to estimate the amount of practice and of patience the performance must have demanded of the drillers and of the drillmasters. They were awarded a gold medal, and they well deserved it.

The organizers were fortunate in securing the patronage of M. R. Ry. S. Rm. M. Ct. Pethachi Chettiar, Zemindar of Andipatty, the patron of all good causes in this town, and of M.R.Ry. Ramanatha Reddiar of Rangoon, a gentleman of proverbial liberality. Mr. Reddiar, who was Vice-President of the Exhibition Committee, understood, with great practical sense, that the success of the Exhibition would be assured, if the good will of the Teachers of the Lalgudi Range, who had supplied the occasion for it, and of the volunteers, on whose devotion so much depended, was secured. Accordingly he undertook to feed the Teachers at his choultry, Tiruvanakaval, and contributed very handsomely to the fare of the Volunteers. I have little doubt that he did effectively win their sympathies.

Mr. Chettiar was President of the Board of Judges, and took it upon himself as a matter of course to pay for nearly all the gold medals that were awarded.

The Judges, among whom were some of the leading residents of Trichinopoly and Srirangam, had no easy task in appraising and suitably rewarding merit. They had before them a mass of exhibits of varying standard of merit, from an absolute and from a relative point of view. They decided to recognize and reward absolute and relative merit, and, in our opinion, they were right. True, the prize may have a different significance in different cases: in one, it is reward for excellence, whereas in another, it is reward rather for praiseworthy and not unsuccessful effort, deserving encouragement. It will occur to all that a schoolboy, even a teacher, cannot rival a professional man or an artist; yet, if competition is open to them all, there is fitness in rewarding the good will of the one and the skill of the other.

It would be idle to contend that the Lalgudi Exhibition was perfect in all points, or that it was above criticism. It must be remembered that it was held in educational institutions. Now, colleges and schools have to satisfy the exigencies of the calendar, and they cannot sacrifice term and work even to an educational exhibition. Consequently the organizers and their collaborators had to exercise their ingenuity to the utmost to squeeze the whole programme into a week, when a whole fortnight would have been well spent in the laying out of the exhibits alone. Even the popularity itself with which the Exhibition was met from the public, and the consequent rush, must have been a clog to organization. Yet, when all is said, it remains that the Lalgudi Exhibition was a substantial success, of which Mr. Parthasarathi Naicker and Mr. Nataraja Sarma may well be proud.

F. B.

National Debt.

[*By* GEORGE PANTALEONE, *II U.C.*]

One division of the human race is, according to Charles Lamb, into 'the men who borrow,' and 'the men who lend'. The former he calls 'the great race'; and the latter, 'the small race.' 'The great race', he says, is infinitely superior to 'the small race', which is born degraded. The Government of a country has every reason to congratulate itself upon being included in 'the great race'.

We do not dispute the intrinsic greatness of the Government of a country. But, it so happens that the greatest power in a country enhances its greatness extrinsically, by having recourse to the same financial expedients as Sir Richard Steele resorted to in his greatness and in his great emergencies. The Government would borrow a trifle of gold and silver, not exceeding a few million pounds, from the 'small race of lenders,' the nation at large. How apt the terms, 'great race' and 'small race'!

Governments, like individuals, want money. Money is required for the payment of officials, for public works, for ways and communications. Money is required to meet sundry emergencies; it is required especially for war. Should the 'sinews of war' be wanting, woe to the belligerent!

In normal times and in normal conditions, sufficient money is obtained in normal ways by the Government. It is got from the proceeds of taxation on imports and exports, from tolls, and customs duties on goods and articles that supply the needs and comforts of the people. It is also got from the proceeds of revenue on land and property, from taxes on income, houses, and furniture. But the money derived from these sources is insufficient to to meet all the expenses that a Government has to meet, should peace and prosperity be replaced by war and devastation. More money than the proceeds from taxation and revenue is then required.

To meet such abnormal exigencies, States, in antiquity as well as in the middle ages kept a treasury, full of gold and silver coin and bullion. We read of the war-chest of the Athenian confederacy at Delos, and that after the Persian war and before the outbreak of the Peloponnesian war, this war-chest was transferred to the Acropolis. It is said to have contained, not less than 10,000 talents, equal in value to the then colossal amount of about £2,000,000. Alexander the Great found a large treasury in Susa. Julius Cæsar's final ascendency was, in a large measure, due to the imprudence of Pompey in leaving the treasury in the hands of his rival. Henry IV of France had a treasury intended for any emergency. The kings of England down to Henry VIII were equally circumspect on this point. And we know that the German treasury at Spandau was very munificently replenished some two years ago.

In the absence, or insufficiency, of treasure, special taxation was resorted to as a means of satisfying the abnormal needs of a warring nation. Whether this taxation was heavy or light, it was above the legally established rate and was a burden on the nation. Another expedient to raise money to meet abnormal needs, was that of taking forced loans and benevolences. History affords examples. Edward IV and Henry VII of England found, in forced loans and benevolences, an easy way out of financial difficulties.

These were the three ways by which a Government might raise money to meet extraordinary contingencies:—hoarding up treasure, special taxation, and forced loans and benevolences. None of these ways can be resorted to in the present

condition of States. If a hoard of capital is ready at hand to be made use of at a moment of necessity, the nation that has to face an unexpected enemy will turn it to very good account. But, considering the immense facilities of production at the command of a modern capitalist and the unproductiveness of treasure in an iron-chest, we may account it the most foolish, if not the most pernicious action on the part of a Government to keep a Treasury. The Government makes no gain; the nation makes no gain. Of course we cannot draw any hard and fast line to mark off the financial interests of a nation and of its Government; both have, ultimately, more or less the same interests.

Special taxations would be burdensome for the payers. The person, who has already paid up the whole of the legally assessed tax, will not be willing to contribute an additional sum of money to the Exchequer, unless he be a man of very elastic financial status, or is actuated by sentiments of very exceptional patriotism. Such persons are not met with very frequently in any country. The condition of such a tax-payer would be all the more aggravated by the thought that the money would never return to him in any shape.

Forced loans and benevolences would occasion very great discontent. In the first case, the Government should use the lash; in the second, cringe and beg; both extremes are now out of date.

Therefore, the best way by which a State may extricate itself in our days from a monetary difficulty is to borrow. Hence, it has been said on more than one occasion that a State debt, the existence of a National Debt in a country, is a sure sign that the inhabitants are on the road to civilisation, if they have not already gone a long way. Such a nation is considered to be progressing; and rightly so, for it has realised the productive worth of money, and understood that its wealth will return with satisfactory increase.

A National Debt properly understood urges the wealthy to be useful to the State and to themselves, by responding generously to the appeal of their Government for a loan. A large portion of the credit of the country passes into the hands of the State. The State is debtor to the nation. It undertakes to pay interest on the capital; and it undertakes to cancel the debt altogether. The former undertaking is limited by time; not so the latter. The payment of interest will be made by definite instalments, within fixed terms, in annuities, or otherwise, while the repayment of the capital may be delayed indefinitely.

It is a mistake to consider that public borrowing came into existence only in the seventeenth century. Before this period, money was borrowed, but not exactly in the same way as now. It is true that in the days of classical antiquity, the State did not avail itself of this expedient. In the Middle Ages, the stigma fulminated on usurious money-lenders, and the idea of Kings that it was derogatory to their regal dignity to ask for a loan from their subjects, prevented State-borrowing. But it was customary for sovereigns to contract loans on the security of their private solvency and personal credit. Much borrowing and lending was carried on, but it kept a quasi-private character. A sovereign might borrow from a bank, or a monastery, on the security of his own demesne. In the fourteenth century, Italian banks supplied English Kings with money. Hallam tells us that in 1345, the company of bankers, the Bardi at Florence, became bankrupt owing to the failure of Edward III to reimburse a sum of 9,000,000 gold florins, principal and interest, which he owed them. The commercial revolution of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries depressed the Italian towns and banks, and brought those of the Low countries into prominence. Imitation of Dutch methods of commerce and finance in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in England was one of the causes that led up to the creation and development of the English National Debt, which soon assumed the character

and name of 'funded debt'. This funded debt system has been imitated by other European States.

The English National Debt was established by Montague, Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1692, as a means of raising the money required to meet the expenses of Willian III's French wars. It was proposed to institute a permanent Debt, and the Bank of England, established in 1694, was deputed to see to the proper management of the Debt, of which it has ever since been the manager.

The country that is burdened with a National Debt, and the Government that is held responsible for its liquidation, are not generally labouring at a disadvantage. In Bagehot's phrase, such a debt is 'additive' and gives greater energy to production. If private corporations increase their business and profit by the employment of borrowed capital, in addition to their original funds, we do not see why a State, the greatest and the highest corporation imaginable in a land and the largest co-operative organisation, should not avail itself of this financial expedient of borrowing. Nor can we entertain any doubt on the score of the large gains that it would appropriate to itself by the employment of an enlarged credit. A merchant who employs £100 does not proportionately gain so much as another who employs £1000. A corporation of tradesmen that employs millions of pounds, gains much more than an individual merchant who employs less. National credit must produce in a country. The more the credit, the more the business and the more the gain. But this is true only when the State employs its borrowed credit for economically productive undertakings, say, for the construction of railways and canals.

But, the case is different when the money of the State is employed for carrying on a war. It is employed for the preparation of war-materials, and the whole of it will, in a short time, be turned into smoke. Yet the credit thus metamorphosed into a cloud of smoke, may fortunately descend into a cooler rain of martial strength and there condense into gold and silver. In case of final victory, the money spent produces enormously. A war-indemnity is not just the sum employed to equip the army and the navy for fighting. It is not for nothing that the Germans have been emptying their colossal Schloss; they expected a fabulous indemnity. They expect it still to recover their irrecoverable expenses.

Malabar and the Origin of the Nayars.

[*By* K. S. Unni, *III Hons. Class.*]

(*Continued.*)

The common theory of the origin of the Nayars is that they are the decendants of the Eastern Sudras. In support of this theory many arguments have been advanced; the similarity of the Malayalam and Tamil languages, the early conquest of Kerala by Tamilian Kings, the abundance of Tamil inscriptions found in Travancore, and the old tradition itself. But these arguments seem to have been suggested by the theory as good props for it, rather than to be facts and principles from which it is deduced. Not one of these arguments can stand before logic and common sense.

As already observed, the similarity between Malayalam and Tamil is only

that similarity which Malayalam has with other Dravidian languages. Scholars such as Mr. Ramkrishna Pillay and Mr. Seshagiri Prabhu have shown that Malayalam is of as early an origin as any other actually existing Dravidian dialect.

The early conquest of Kerala by Tamilian Kings is a fact: but to conquer is not to colonize. Historical records prove that Tamilian Kings once ruled over Kerala. But that the influence of Tamilians over the original inhabitants, their coalescence with them, or their absorption by them was very trifling, is proved by the fact that Tamilian customs, even those that were more advanced than the native customs, were not adopted by the people. No man can reasonably believe that the Tamilians would have changed their social customs and adopted those of Malabar.

The abundance of Tamil inscriptions only tells us of the Tamilian dynasties which once ruled over Kerala. Nor are those Tamil inscriptions the earliest in the country. Vattelathu, from which Malayalam has probably taken its origin, is the earliest known written language in Malabar.

The last of these arguments, the tradition itself, deserves no more consideration than the others. We cannot admit that Parasurama once brought in Eastern Brahmans and Sudras, settled them in Kerala, changed their customs, and set up a new code of social rules. First of all we doubt, and we shall discuss the point later on, whether the Nambudiris are of Aryan origin as they profess. Then again, the story of the abrupt change of customs and social rules, from one more advanced to a lower, is quite opposed to all we know from history and psychology. One eminent scholar has observed, "social and domestic customs are the last things which a people can be induced to renounce". One custom may evolve out of another under external and internal influences, but an abrupt change, especially from bad to worse, is quite impossible. The Nayars were more civilised than their eastern brothers in all respects except as regards marriage customs. The Nayars were accustomed to democratic institutions even in the very earliest stage of their civilisation. Each Thara was a political independent unit, subjected only in its external relations to its chief. Each Thara was composed of several families which had something of the status of a Roman family under *patritia potestas.* Besides, we also know that Kerala had once no hereditary chieftains but only elected ones. Such political conditions were unknown on the eastern side of the Ghats. The theory, then, that the Nayars are descendants of the Eastern Sudras, does not seem to follow from the arguments just now examined.

Another theory supposes that the Nayars are of Scythian origin. This theory was defended by Justice Mattar, and attacked by Justice K. Raman Menon, in the first two issues of the Malabar Quarterly Review, 1902. All that can be urged in support of this Scythian origin was the invasion of India by the Scythians and their probable migration to the south, the serpent worship common with them and with the present inhabitants of Malabar, the colonization of Ceylon by the Naga family, their supposed return to the peninsula and their settlement at Malabar, and last of all the probability of the derivation of the term "Nayar" from "Naga." Minor arguments such as the affinity of the Pali and Malayalam languages and the reckoning of the kindred among Scythians by mother's side, were urged in proof of their theory.

But we have learned from distinguished scholars, Rapson, for instance, and others like him, that the Scythians, or Sakas as they were called, invaded India only in the 1st century B. C. For a long time their power was restricted to Central India and the N. W. Provinces, and it was only when their power was broken there, that they found it necessary to migrate to the south. If we accept this theory, their settlement in Kerala must have taken place early in A. D. But we

have no record of their settlements, no inscription, no coins, nor any other such vestiges of them as we might have expected, for they left many records of their presence in the N. W. Provinces and Central India, where they at first settled.

Serpent worship was not only common with the Scythians, but even with the earliest inhabitants of India. In *Yajur Veda* there is mention of serpent worship, and *Yajur Veda* was composed previous to the influence of the Scythians, as all historians are agreed. From this we can only infer that serpent worship was common in Kerala as in other parts of India.

The similarity between the Malayalam language and the Pali, and the similarity in the mode of reckoning kindred, from which the settlement in Kerala of Ceylonese is deduced, does not need refutation. Language is no proof of race. Similarities of languages are observable in different parts of the world; the similarity of the Dravidian dialect and Low German dialect is no argument to prove that Low Germans are either the ancestors or descendants of the Dravidians.

Nor can we conclude that all the races that follow the matriarchal system were at some early period sons of one stock. The matriarchal system exists among S. African Negroes, the American wild Indians, the Konars of Erode, and elsewhere among other unrelated tribes.

As regards similarity of language, it has been proved by the laws of phonetic variations, that it would be more easy to drop altogether a hard guttural, than to change from a soft guttural to another soft one.

Moreover, the honorific lore of the suffix "ar" was not known to the Scythians; we hear of their king as Sisunaga, not Sisunagar. These weak points in the theory show that it is a rather fanciful invention.

Besides these two theories, which are generally considered the most important and as such are worthy of our consideration, there are many other theories which do not deserve mention at all. I shall allude to them here to show how far ingenuity and imagination can go. The Nayars are said to be the descendants of Bengalis, of Nepalese, of Naidus, and Guzarattis. These theories are supported by very flimsy arguments, like common worship, affinity of language, similartiy in architecture; they deserve no comment or criticism.

Given, then, that the theories in vogue as to the origin of the Nayars are groundless, we shall look for one that will be both reasonable and adequate. The Nayars are settlers on the soil, not its own original children. This is evident. The original inhabitants are the Cherumas, Pulayas, and the other low castes who are attached to the soil like the Helots of Sparta. This fact itself that these low castes are attached to the soil, while the Nayars are not, accounts for the martial character of the Nayars. Further, physical type, colour, and language show that these low caste people are of the same stock as the other descendants of the original inhabitants of India now to be met with in other parts of the continent. Thus the Nagars of Chota Nagpore bear a very strong resemblance to the Cherumas of Malabar, in physical type, appearance, dress, manners and civilisation; and their worship of only some lower-class deities and their social customs mark them as a primitive people. If the Nayars were their brothers one day, it is a hard question to answer, how one group of brothers differs to-day from the other in every respect imaginable. The Nayars of Malabar were not the original inhabitants of the soil, for that would imply necessarily kinship with these Cherumas and Pariahs.

So far my work has been destructive; I have only rejected theories. I now proceed to state what I conceive to be the answer to the question, what is the origin of the Nayars. They are a mixture of all races—Dravidians, Aryans, and Scythians. Whether the Dravidians were immigrants from the supposed submerged continent of Timuria or of Trans-Himalayan origin, the earliest inhabit-

ants of India were Dravidians, and Kerala, like the rest of India, was inhabited by Dravidians, of whom we see the pure type nowadays in the Cherumas, Pulayas, and others. The presence of a Dravidian element in the inhabitants of Malabar is undeniable.

There were also Aryan immigrants into Malabar, whose religion and sculpture remains in Kerala. But Aryan influence was very slight; the customs of the Kerala Brahmins are different from those of Brahmins in other parts of India. They follow a "Sarva Sandhana" form of marriage, and a "Dwayamushayana" form of adotption, which is not allowed by the law of Mitakshara now prevailing in other parts of India. The early Aryans followed Makkathayam and Mitakshara; not Marumakkathayam and Sarvasandhanam. If the Nambudiris of Malabar are, as they say, the decendants of the old Aryans, why do they not keep up the customs of their forefathers? And if they do not observe these customs now, they certainly did not observe them in early times, for they are very hard conservatives. To think that the Aryans abruptly and of their own free-will changed their social customs to imitate their neighbours, is not reasonable, as we have already seen. Nor were they subject to any force from the inhabitants of the land, for they were conquerors.

Our Nambudiris are not of Aryan descent. This proposition is also supported by the physical type of the Nambudiris and allusions in Kerala Mahatmya. The physical type of the Nambudiris, who by rigid social rules keep their race pure, does not at all agree with the genuine Aryan type given by Sir H. Reisley. They were once members of the Nayar community who were raised to the Brahmin class by Aryan priests. We know that such elevations were not wanting in precedents. The Kayaskha Brahmins of the Bombay Presidency trace their origin from Egyptian settlers on the coast. Allusions to a similar elevation in Malabar are present in Kerala Mahatmyam. It is said that sixteen families were raised into Brahmin communities; and there is a strong coincidence in the number also, for the Payyanoor Graman, which now claim their origin from Aryans, is composed of sixteen families. This theory explains the fact of the existence of Marumakkathayam among the Nambudris. The Nayars when raised to their new status found it hard to change their social customs; they preserved them in spite of their deification. The original Aryan settlers were few, and have in course of time got so intermingled with the rest, that it is hard now to trace them.

There may have also been Scythian invaders, who about the I century A.D. began to spread southward. With these there would have been settlers from various places outside India, as from Ceylon, the Western World, and other distant places beyond the sea; that Malabar had commercial relations in very early times with foreign countries, is an acknowledged fact. The physical type of the Malayalees shows that there has been strong blending of distinctive and various races.

Hence, Malabar was not peopled by any particular race from Upper India, or from the eastern coast, but at different times, by small groups of settlers of different races. Such was the blending in the early stage as to create a distinctive group, the Nayars. But the difficulties to be met by this group were many. They had to contend against the original inhabitants for very life and this gave them their military character, and their peculiar matriarchal system which was adopted, I think, consciously, so as to exclude all affections and passions in the man, and turn him into a mere military being.

But then the question may arise how and why the caste system originated, and how a common language was gained. The answer is very easy. When the Nayars formed themselves into a separate community distinct from the natives of the land, and later on, when they had to subjugate the natives, they naturally thought themselves

superior to the natives, and reduced them to the lowest social class. There are evidences in our traditions themselves to show that the Nayars were once without caste distinctions among themselves. The distinctions we now see, are of later growth. This is clear from the histories of different noble families in Malabar.

Difference of occupations led little by little to caste distinction. Many noble families are descendants of military chieftains, those whom we call Naduvashies or Sthanees; some were cooks, the Kirayithil; some oil-makers, the Vattakatan; some palanquin-bearers, the Pallachan; and so on. Caste therefore is of recent growth.

There only remains the question of a common language. We know from inscriptions that Vattalethu was the earliest known written language, and from the language of the lower castes we know that Malayalam in a very infant stage was the speech of the natives. Since the natives were at first the majority of population and the settlement was gradual, we can reasonably believe that the settlers adopted the language of the natives of the soil. Later on, though the natives were exterminated or subjugated, the language was still retained. This also explains the timid advance of Malayalam literature.

Thus have I tried to form and express a view of the origin of the Nayars, a problem which well deserves the attention of scholars, especially of the Malabar scholars themselves.

Appendix.

1. 'Malabar Quarterly Reviews' 1902 - 1906. 2. 'Mangalodayam'. 3. 'The People of India', by Sir H. Reisley. 4. 'Ancient India', by Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Iyengar. 5. 'Ancient India', by Rapson. 6. 'Kerala Mahatruyam'. 7. 'Keralolpathi.' 8. The Travancore State Manual. 9. The Cochin State Manual. 10. The Malabar District Manual.

Patriotism, what it is and what it is not.—Patriotism is love for the motherland and the nation, for the soil on which we were born and the people among whom we are bred. You love yourself; therefore you wish to make yourself healthy, strong, and beautiful, to refine your feelings, to sharpen your intellect, and to store your memory with accurate, vast, and varied knowledge of man and nature. You love your family; therefore you desire to better the condition of its members, to raise them above want to furnish them with all reasonable conveniences, to educate them, and to seccure among them harmony, peace, and unalloyed happiness. To be a patriot is simply to extend this love. A nation is but a large family held together by a sense of unity, by common interests, and by an ardent desire of its members to reach a common goal. When you feel towards your country as you feel towards your family that you love; when the suffering of the least of your countrymen stirs you up, as if he were a brother of your own blood; when your soul will not rest till peace, plenty, and prosperity reign over your land; when, undaunted by obstacles, unchilled by the cold indifference of your own brethren, you strive with all your might, with every means and talent at your command, to gain happiness for your native land, then indeed glows in your heart the living fire of patriotism.

To love one country is not to despise or trample upon others; the uplifting of one nation does not imply the suppression of others. Patriotism is not opposed to love of humanity; it is contributory towards it; it is the most practical and the most common expression of it. You make your country better; by so much the world is better; and if the men of each country do their duty by their country, all countries will grow, and the world will march along the path of progress. Providence has put you in one field, the field which He, in His almighty wisdom, has thought the one most suited for your powers; till it and make it fruitful; others will do the same in theirs. By each man doing his duty and by each nation fulfilling its mission, God's plan will be carried out.

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The War. 4th Aug. - 20th Oct. 1916.

Introductory.

The German power of offensive culminated in the prolonged attack on Verdun. The attack was at its height, when the Battle of Jutland, by crippling the enemy's fleet and thereby securing the Russian flank against a surprise from the sea, loosed the great Russian offensive from the Pripet to Bukovina. The Austrians, reeling under a rapid succession of heavy blows, hurriedly recalled part of the forces that were engaged on the border of the Italian plain. This weakening of the forces opposed to them, gave the Italians their opportunity: they struck, and recovered from the defeated enemy the towns of Asiero and Asiago. (May-July.)

The Franco-British advance on the Somme, which began on 1st July, shattered the German power of offensive in the West. Verdun, when the Somme offensive had fully developed, receded to a place of secondary importance in the eyes of the public; attention was focussed on the gigantic struggle initiated by the Allies in the direction of the Peronne-Bapaume Road. Here the unhappy Huns saw the fruit of two years of conscientious labour—forts, redoubts, trenches etc.—blown to smithereens, in a few hours; and found themselves, before they could collect their wits, ejected from comfortable quarters arranged with much art for a prolonged stay. The impossible had happened within a few hours after the guns had ceased speaking—the first series of impregnable lines had been carried on a 15-mile front.

At the beginning of August the force of the Russian blow had not yet spent itself. The Somme offensive had not yet reached its height. The Italians were closing on the doomed town of Gorizia. The Bulgarians, uneasy at the continual massing of troops in the vast camp of Salonika, were, with the consent of King Constantine, occupying strategic points in Greek territory. Turkey was about to launch a skilfully planned attack upon the conquerors of Armenia. The German fleet, in spite of, or more correctly, as a direct result of, its famous 'victory,' lay ensconced behind its mine fields, leaving to the Allies undisputed the control of all the seas. The Allied offensive, already developed on the eastern and western fronts, was about to start on the southern (Carso Plateau and Balkans.) The ring was tightening. A temporary set back of the Russians on the Caucasus front, was the only gleam of hope that was to come to animate the enemy during the next ten weeks. (4th Aug. - 20th Oct.) And whatever comfort he may have derived from that event, in a very secondary theatre of the war 1000 miles from Berlin, was damped by the entrance, on 27th August, of Rumania into the ranks of the Allies.

West.

(*A*) *Verdun.* The two great centres of activity have been Verdun and the Somme. At Verdun, the enemy unwilling to abandon the positions which it had cost him 500,000 casualties to seize, still kept up the appearance of an offensive, quite as much for the purpose of impressing Neutrals, as of heartening his own troops, and gratifying his national pride. He must continue to sing the pæans which he had intoned at the capture of Douaumont.*

Although from time to time a half-hearted attempt was made to breach the remaining defences of the city—and they were formidable indeed—it was clear that the offensive had been wrested from the Germans; it collapsed beyond hope of recovery in July, when their lines were stormed on the Somme.

* Moreover, a stay at Verdun—including the usual routine of being shelled and ejected from one's trenches—had come to be considered by the unhappy Germans on the Somme as a kind of holiday or rest cure, after the horrors of the Franco-British bombardment and the bayonet charges that followed.

After three days of fighting the French recovered Thiaumont (9th Aug.); the advance was pressed on to Fleury, which important stronghold was carried by assault (17th Aug.), and held against desperate counter-attacks. A month later (14th Sept.), President Poincaré decorated the city in the name of all the Allies, for its glorious defence of 6 months. From that date the struggle for the famous city may be considered ended. The enemy had been driven back to the blood-soaked ruins of Vaux and Douaumont. His triumph, if it can be called a triumph, ended where it began. 500,000 of his soldiers had suffered in vain.

A fortnight earlier (29th August), Falkenhayn, the chief of the German staff, was thanked for his eminent services, chief among which the disaster before Verdun. The *Frankfurt Gazette*, with unconscious humour, commented on the fact: "His [Falkenhayn's] name will ever be associated with that of Verdun." It will; likewise the Crown Prince's. Falkenhayn's dismissal is the Kaiser's verdict on the Verdun adventure, as Moltke's was the verdict on the first stage of the War in France. The verdict is 'failure.' Hindenburg was appointed to succeed Falkenhayn; and German hopes once more ran high.

(*B*) *The Somme*. Joffre, not Hindenburg, commands on the Somme. Hindenburg's day of easily won glory was Tannenburg (Sept. 1914), when a Russian traitor (since hanged for his crime) delivered his countrymen into Hindenburg's hand. Hindenburg's day was in the Autumn of 1915, when the Russians ran short of ammunition, and died slaughtered by German shells (It is a significant fact, that the German slain were slain by the bayonet; the Russian, by shell fire.) On the Somme these two advantages fail Hindenburg. Treason, if there were any, would avail little; and in the matter of shells the Germans have still something to learn. Hindenburg's reputation is being put to the test; and who shall say that he will stand it better than Moltke and Falkenhayn? Joffre leads the dance on the Somme, and the music is that of a thousand heavy guns. Will Hindenburg not weary of the pace?

One might apply to the Somme offensive, as a whole, on 20th Oct. the words which Sir Douglas Haig used of the British on 15th July: "All goes well." The original German lines have been breached; and of the 53 German divisions which had been mustered to check the Allies' advance (8th Sept.), 39 had been withdrawn exhausted (8th Sept.). How many fresh divisions have been shattered since that date, we have not been told; but the number must be considerable: in the early days of September the Allied commanders reckoned that 2 divisions a week were being hurried up by the German staff to make good the fearful losses inflicted by the Allies' guns. The pace of the Allies' advance must be measured in enemy losses, not in square miles.

The German[1] lines on 1st July consisted of three systems of trenches and wire entanglements, and occupied a series

[1] The German front in the West is like one huge straggling village, built of wood, and strung out along a road 300 miles long. Of course the houses are all under ground Still, they are houses, of one or two floors, built to certain official designs, drawn out in section and plan. The main entrance from the trench level is, sometimes at any rate, through a steel door. Inside, a flight of from 12 to 36 stairs leads down at an easy angle. At the foot of the stairs a tunnelled corridor runs straight forward for anything up to 50 yards, and out of these open rooms and minor passages on each side In many dugouts a second staircase or two staircases lead to a lower floor, which may be 30 ft. or 40 ft. below the trench level.

All these staircases, passages, and rooms, are, in the best specimens, completely lined with wood. In one typical dugout, each section of a platoon had its allotted places for messing and sleeping, its own place for parade in a passage, and its own emergency exit to the trench. In another, used as a dressing-station, there were beds for 32 patients and a fair-sized operating-room. A third, near Mametz, was designed to house a whole company of 300 men, with the needful kitchens, provision and munition store-rooms, a well, a forge riveted with sheets of cast-iron, an engine room, and a motor room. Many of the captured dugouts were thus lighted by electricity In the officers' quarters there have been found full length mirrors, comfortable bedsteads, cushioned armchairs, and some pictures. (*Daily Mail. Overseas Ed. 9th Sept.*)

of low ridges running to the North and South of the Somme. Nature and art had been turned to the fullest account to render the positions impregnable. The numerous villages and hamlets which were situated on these hills, (over 40 have been stormed by the Allies), had been turned into forts; earthworks and redoubts had been thrown up; the whole made up one vast fortress armed with innumerable guns, against which all Allied attacks must break. Two of these villages, Thiepval and Combles, have been described by officers as equal in strength to Verdun or Metz.

The first of these systems of trenches with its chain of fortresses was carried by assault in July. The second, and portions of the third, were stormed in August-October. The ridges are now in the Allies' possession. The French were the first to reach the objective, the Peronne-Bapaume road, by the occupation of Bouchavesnes 14th Sept. The British breached the last of the original lines on the following day, when they captured the villages of Flers, Martinpuich, and Courcelettes. New machinery was used that day for the first time,—H. M. L. S.[1] (His Majesty's Land Ships), or Tanks, or Land Dreadnoughts, as they have been variously described. This was at the very time when Hindenburg, after inspecting the Somme defences, pronounced the following oracle to a batch of German newspaper correspondents, who asked for a message of comfort for the Huns at home: "Tell them from me that the watch on the Somme stands firm and safe. All goes well with us in the West." A week later the Allies had ejected the Huns from eleven positions which, on their captured war maps, bore the note: "Vital; on no account to be lost."

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[1] *The Mysterious Tanks.*—It is possible to-day to write more freely about the now notorious tanks, than would have been prudent heretofore. The Germans have now seen so much of them that one can say a good deal without telling anything that they do not know.

Two days before they were used in the present advance, I had an opportunity to see a lot of them—a whole herd—where they were resting before their first experience of real war. It was as incredible as a nightmare or one of Jules Verne's most fantastic imaginings. A slight hollow, a few acres in extent, in a level plain, was full of the monsters, like cows in a meadow —huge, shapeless bulks, resembling nothing else that was ever seen on earth, which wandered hither and thither like some vast antediluvian brutes which Nature had made and forgotten. Painted in venomons reptilian colours, which made them admirably invisible against the dun background of dry autumn grass and bare soil, they were inexpressibly suggestive of living things—hybrids between Behemoth and the Chimaera, toad-salamanders, echidna dragons —anything you please which is mythical and fantastic.

I was permitted to go inside one of the beasts and inspect its vitals in all their incredible details; and I watched the great things manœuvre about the field, grotesque and unspeakable; and at each new antic which they performed, each new capacity which they developed, one could do nothing but sit down and laugh till one's sides ached. Were they only a preposterous joke, or were they a serious contribution to modern warfare? It was impossible to make up one's mind. But that they were appalling and hideous was certain, as one saw them in the gathering dusk wheel off, and, falling into single file, heave their huge bodies one by one up the sides of the hollow, and then go shouldering off outlined against the skyline, like a great string of mammoths, to take up their positions in the battle front.

We know now, and the Germans know, that as a contribution to modern warfare, they have proved themselves very serious indeed. As fuller accounts of the fighting of the last two days at different parts of the front come in, the value of their services is more and more apparent. I told you yesterday that prisoners declare that they are not civilized war. Some of the officer prisoners get angry on the subject, as if they had never heard of poisonous gases, or *Flammenwerfer*, or torpedoing passenger ships, or dropping bombs on open towns, and shelling seaside resorts,—so exquisite is the German sense of humour.

Terrified Germans.—One can hardly imagine any spectacle more terrifying than those monsters must have presented to German eyes when, after a hurricane bombardment, through the smoke and dust of bursting shells, the great shapes came lumbering forward in the grey light of dawn. The enemy evidently had no hint of what they were. They emptied their rifles at them, and the things came rolling on. They turned on their machine guns, and the bullets only struck sparks—so the prisoners say —from the great beasts' awful sides And still the moving horrors came on, until they reached the first German trench. There in several places, they sat themselves complacently astride of the trench, and swept it in both directions, and all the ground beyond with their machine guns.

The advance was made possible only by the most lavish expenditure of high explosive shells. The *Times* correspondent, writing on the 25th September, estimated the number of shells expended on the British section of the battle-field, by both sides since the offensive began, at 25,000,000. Of these, the larger share was rained on the Germans. With such stupendous shelling to prepare the way, the infantry was able to storm lines of fortresses, which, if they could be strung together, would stretch for several hundred miles.

A detailed account of the fighting would demand more space than can be allowed. It may be of more interest to indicate the method of procedure, and to leave the rest to the reader's imagination. What is said of one village or fortress, is applicable, with variation in the details, to all of them. Take the battle of 15th and 16th September as a sample.

On that day the British stormed Flers, Martinpuich, and Courcelettes. Against the narrow front whence the British attack was to be launched, the enemy had 1000 guns thundering. The British attack was preceded by a violent bombardment of the lines to be stormed; the bombardment was such that "it seemed as if the enemy had no guns at all." After the shelling, the infantry went forth in successive waves under the friendly protection of our guns to storm the German lines. A fierce bayonet struggle; then the waves swept on, while others began the savage work of clearing the concealed Huns from their village 30-50 ft. below the ground—knives, bombs and pistols being the weapons of these fighters in the dark subterranean galleries. Here and there the assaulters of the trenches were held up by machine guns, but not for long. Help was soon forthcoming; one of H. M. L. Ships lumbered up, and tackled the machine gunners—and the infantry swept on. The fighting resulted in the capture of 4000 prisoners. The number of slain was much larger; hundreds of enemies were buried alive or blown to atoms by shell fire, hundreds more were killed by the bayonet, or even shot by British airmen who came swooping down like huge birds of prey, and turned their guns on the fugitives.

After the victory came the counter-attacks,(1) the dispossessed Hun struggling in vain to recover the positions from which he had been ejected, and which were deemed vital for the defence of his lines in the West.

Vary the details, but repeat the process on the same general lines, and you have the storming of Thiepval, Combles,

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In some cases the enemy surrendered from the trenches to Leviathan himself before the infantry came up. In any event, when our infantry arrived, the fight at that point was over; and then Behemoth ambled on to where there was more work to be done. Against strong points they were invaluable, because they could thrust themselves, secure in the toughness of their hide, to close quarters where unprotected infantry could never get. In woods they trampled their way through the undergrowth, and climbed over or broke down barricades, contemptuous of the machine guns and rifle fire which made approach of unarmoured men impossible.

Some few met with mishaps: that was inevitable. Others exceeded expectations. There were joyous stories, quite early in the fight, brought in by airmen who had seen the individual monsters waddling over the shell-torn ground in the open, far from our front line, and in advance of the infantry who were busy cleaning up the trenches in the rear. One was reported rolling majestically and alone down the empty main street of Flers long before the place was ours. Others displaying large signs, "Great German Defeat! Special Extra!" led our men victoriously into Martinpuich. Another seems to have gone unaccompanied into a certain sugar factory by Courcelette, which was known to be strongly fortified, and simply terrorised it—not an eagle, but a plesiosaurus, in a dovecote. In reducing the objectionable strong points about High Wood they were invaluable, and one wounded sergeant to whom I spoke, told ecstatic stories of the way in which one mastodon just butted into the remaining tree trunks there, and crashed them down on top of the defenders of the stronghold.

[*Times*, 17th Sept.]

(1) Between 1st Oct. and 20th Oct, the enemy made eleven desperate counter-attacks against the Schwaben Redoubt, which we captured on 29th Sept. All ended in slaughter: we kept what we had won. Numerous counter-attacks upon other positions ended in the same way.

Bouchavesnes, Rancourt, and half a hundred more forts and villages.

The results of the Somme Battle from 1st July to 11th October (figures have not been given for the last 10 days) are:—60,470 prisoners; 1030 machine guns; 304 guns—taken. The British have made a gap 9 miles wide and 7 miles deep. The French, according to a message from Joffre, on 3rd October, had already captured 25 villages, and smashed the enemy's lines to a depth of 10 kilometers. The Allies have captured 200 square miles of fortified ground, including 44 villages. (28 Sept.) They are in possession of every important height from the Ancre to the Somme; the enemy has been driven to his fourth line; and his reserves have been used up in costly and fruitless counter-attacks.

East.

The great Russian advance continued to sweep westward till the end of August. Stanislau, 75 miles from Lemberg, the centre of five railways, was occupied on 11th August after three days of battle. The advance was pushed on till it reached Nadworna 20 miles to the south-west, and Monasterzyska 19 miles to the north-east (12th August). The large bodies of German troops, which had been massed about Kovel in expectation of an attack there, expected in vain; the blow had fallen further south. In the course of the next week, the Jablonitza pass was seized, and the way was open for an invasion of Hungary.

27th August Rumania took the decision and joined the Allies. The event is important in two ways. First, the decision is the verdict of a very cautious and self-interested State. Rumanian statesmen have followed the trend of affairs with keen appreciation for two whole years; and now when the War has entered on its second phase, the Allies' offensive, they have proclaimed to the world their conviction, the fruit of long and careful study, that the Allies have won. Secondly, Rumania's entrance complicates the problem of defence for the enemy. The problem for him in August was to find the men, not for an offensive against the Allies, but for the defence of his threatened frontiers; his battle lines were thinning, and his reserves nearing exhaustion. At that unseasonable juncture, Rumania gave him an additional 600 miles of frontier to guard.

Rumania's intervention was determined by motives of the same order as Italy's. Both countries have their eyes and their hearts set on large tracts of land, held by Austria, but inhabited by Italians and Rumanians respectively. Italy sided with the Allies primarily to liberate or redeem her Italian kinsfolk of Italia Irredenta; Rumania, her kinsfolk of Transylvania.

Upon declaration of War, the Rumanians advanced through their passes into Transylvania, the Austrian forces retiring before them. Before the end of the third week of September, the towns of Brasso, Orsova and the Iron Gates which control the Danube, Herkulesbad, Helimbar, Fogaras and Petroseny, and one-third of the coveted territory were occupied. Then there came a set-back.

While the Rumanians were invading Transylvania, Mackensen, the German General, had mustered a large force of Germans, Bulgarians, and Turks, in the Dobruja, where the Rumanian frontier was open to attack, and seized Turtukai on the right bank of the Danube (7th Sept.) and the large town of Silistria (12th). The enemy's objective was the Cernavoda bridge, which, with its approaches, is 11 miles long, and is the only bridge spanning the Danube for 380 miles upstream. Had the enemy succeeded in reaching it, the Rumanians would have had to choose between the invasion

NOTE.—Total captures by all the Allies, 1st July-18th September:—

	Guns.	*Machine guns.*	*Prisoners.*
French	145	729	33,699
British	109	223	21,450
Italian	39	92	33,048
Russian	811	1580	402,471

British captures 1st July-1st October:—

Heavy guns	29	Machine guns	397
Field guns	92	Prisoners, men	26,147
Trench mortars	103	,, officers	588

of their territory from the South and the destruction of the bridge. To stem the advance in the Dobruja, part of the forces operating in Transylvania was withdrawn and drafted across the Danube. The Dobruja army thus reinforced brought the invaders to a standstill. (End of September.)

But, in the meantime, Falkenhayn had been despatched against Rumania. The considerations which impelled Germany to use up her dwindling reserves against Rumania were military, political, and economic. A victorious Rumania would mean the cutting of the Berlin-Baghdad railway, and the speedy defeat of Germany's dupes, Bulgaria and Turkey. Then, the Rumanian advance into Transylvania had thrown Hungary into a state of grave discontent, not to say panic. The German public were becoming depressed on account of their failure to stem the progress of the Allies on the Somme. A success over Rumania would stimulate Hungary into renewed exertions, and divert the attention of Berlin from the Somme. More important still, the defeat of Rumania would bring immense stores of grain, petroleum, timber etc., to the Central Empires—supplies which they most urgently need. Falkenhayn gathered some 250,000 men in Hungary for the attack. The Rumanians saw the blow preparing, and evacuated Petroseny on 22nd September, and retired on the Vulkan Pass. Brasso was evacuated on 10th October.

The extent of the Rumanian retirement is not yet clear. The enemy at two points succeeded in penetrating beyond the passes some 12 miles into Rumania, at Rucaru and Agas. Here the invaders were at last checked (20th Oct.) on the threshold to the plains.

While the Rumanians South of the Carpathians were advancing and then falling back, the Russians on the North maintained their sweep from West of Lutzk to the Carpathians, with Halicz as the main objective. On 10th September the enemy was reported to be evacuating the town, which was on fire. Hindenburg's attempts to divert the Russian armies from Halicz by a series of blows at Dvinsk (8th Sept.), and in the region of Kovel (8th Sept.) all failed to make any impression. The fighting continued as fierce as ever; 25,000 Austrians were captured in the first three weeks of September, among whom were some hundreds of Turks—a sure sign of desperate straits. 23rd September the Germans launched an attack against Narotch and Baranovitchi, as unsuccessful as the former against Dvinsk.

1st October a slight advance was made south of Brzezany, but in the direction of Kovel all Russian efforts failed. Hindenburg had massed considerable forces at that junction of the Austrian and German armies. The fighting continued about Halicz, resulting in little advance, but in great captures of prisoners.

The desperate resistance of the enemy, the redistribution of the Russian forces necessitated by Rumania's entrance into the War, and the lack of equipment, probably account for the slowness of the Russian progress in the last 7 weeks as compared with that of first three months. But the gains have all been on Russia's side ; not a foot of conquered ground has been yielded to the enemy, while his losses in men and material have been colossal. From 1st June to October Austria has lost over 800,000 out of the 1,700,000 men she had when Russia struck the first blow.

South.

A. Italy.—On the Italian front, the natural obstacles account for the extreme slowness of the progress made. Much of the fighting takes place at an altitude of 9000 ft. in the clouds and snow, and among precipices. Steel cables "slung from hill to hill, from ridge to ridge, span yawning depths, and reach almost vertically into the clouds. Up these cables go guns and food, as well as timber for the huts in which the men live....Down these come the wounded... Man is not only fighting man at these heights, but both Italians and Austrians have been fighting nature in some of her

wildest aspects. The gales and snowstorms are excelled in horror by the avalanches. Quite lately the melting snow revealed the frozen bodies, looking horribly life-like, of a whole platoon which had been swept away nearly a year ago." [Lord Northcliffe, 15th Aug.]

In this inhospitable region the Italians are driving the Austrians back foot by foot up the almost vertical flanks of the mountains, by artillery fire, but more frequently in hand to hand fighting; the battles are mostly by night. "The only day fighting is when...the whole or part of a mountain top has to be blown off, because it is impossible to turn or carry it by direct assault. The tunnels, sometimes 800 yards long, are drilled by machinery through the solid rock beneath the Austrian strongholds, which presently disappear under the smashing influence of 30 or 40 tons of dynamite. Then the Alpini swarm over the debris and capture or kill the enemy survivors..." [Lord Northcliffe, 16th Aug.]

This description applies to the greater portion of the Italian front, where the mountain regiments were pressing back the enemy and barring his way to a flank attack upon the troops moving towards Trieste. Further to the East the guns were massing in July for the assault upon Gorizia. The last struggle for the town began on 6th August, and ended on 9th, with the army of General Cadorno in possession of the place. 10,000 prisoners were taken in Gorizia itself; and the enemy losses on the three days preceding the final assault were 50,000. [*United Press Agency*, Rome, 13th Aug.]

On 27th August Italy normalized an abnormal situation by declaring war on Germany.

Fighting continued throughout August and September on the Carso plateau (to the East of Gorizia). 6th August-10th October 30,800 Austrian prisoners were taken.

B. Balkans.—Germany's grandiose scheme of conquest included the formation of a German, or at least a German-controlled, empire extending from Berlin to Baghdad. This scheme became a reality, temporarily, in the late Autumn of 1915 when Serbia was overrun. The Kaiser could have journeyed in safety from the Baltic to Kut-el-Amarah; beyond, he might not go: the sea was closed to him. The Allies' work is to ruin the scheme, by establishing themselves athwart the Berlin-Baghdad railway.

At the beginning of August a vast Allied army (1) had been assembled in Salonika. The time had come for the advance upon the Berlin-Constantinople railway. But previous to any advance in force, the rear of the invading armies had to be secured. Now there was a real danger in the rear: King Constantine meditated treachery. Diplomatic representations were of no more avail than the representations and clamours of the loyal Greeks themselves. The country was in a ferment of revolution. The Bulgarians, in connivance with the king who had sold his country to Germany, occupied Kavalla (27th Aug.) and other important strategic points in Greek territory, the Greek commanders surrendering forts and stores without firing a shot, in obedience to orders from Athens. A fortified camp was forming at Larissa, destined to serve as base for an attack on the Allies, once these latter had got to grips with the enemy in front.

After much delay the Allies adopted an attitude which Constantine could understand. 42 warships anchored off the Piræus. The Greeks handed over the Telegraphs, which had been used, in defiance of neutrality, to communicate to the enemy news of the Allies' movements. A month later the Allies demanded control of the Athens-Larissa railway, which carried the supplies to the camp of Larissa, and the disarming of the Greek fleet, which was to be used for raids on the Allies' convoys in the Mediterranean.

(1) The *Journal de Genève* 1st September gave the following figures as authentic:

175,000	French and colonial troops.
150,000	British ,, ,,
80,000	Serbian ,,
30,000	Italian ,,
20,000	Russian ,,

Reinforcements have been arriving since.

The operations against Bulgaria began on 8th August. On that day the Serbians got to grips with the Bulgarians; and the encounter, like many more which were to follow, was not to the Bulgarians' liking. The Bulgarians were driven from Priseka. Further eastward the British took up positions near Doiran (9th Aug.) By 14th the offensive had become general from Lake Prespa to the Demir-Hissar railway. On 25th the Serbians seized the heights above Lake Ostrovo and began to attack along the Kaymaktchalan range. This they crossed, and advanced on Monastir in the last days of September. They were once more on the soil of their native land. A Franco-Russian force drove the enemy from Florina. Early in October the British crossed the Struma, and captured a dozen strongly fortified villages near the Seres-Demir-Hissar railway.

The Serbians (20th Oct.) are attacking the last defences of Monastir. With the fall of that town, the Bulgarian right will be turned, and events may be expected to move more rapidly.

The Rumanian intervention has had an appreciable influence on the Salonika front, by tying down to their trenches in the Dobruja a large enemy force, which would have been invaluable to the defenders of Monastir.

Turkey.

The two important events have been an attack on the lines defending the Suez Canal, and a counter-offensive against the Russians in Armenia.

The first of these events took place on 4th August. A force of 14,000 Turks with a detachment of Germans was defeated at Romani, 18 miles East of the Suez Canal. 3,100 unwounded prisoners were taken, beside a considerable booty of camels, guns, and ammunition.

In the Caucasus region the Turks were at first more successful than on the Suez Canal. The capture of Erzingan had pushed them back to the edge of the Armenian plateau, but had not thrown them on the defensive. They counter-attacked along the Taurus range, took Mush and Bitlis, and advanced 30 miles towards Erzerum. They penetrated 150 miles into Persia, and captured Hamadan.

There the success ended. The situation, at one time not without danger, was retrieved by a strong Russian attack, which threatened the enemy's communications, and recaptured Bitlis and Mush 24th Aug. Part of the Turkish forces was trapped, and 2 regiments surrendered entire.

Naval.

On 19th August a large German squadron put out to sea, and back again into harbour as soon as its scouts signalled the approach from afar of a British squadron. The Germans had no mind to fight; a newspaper account of a cruise was the utmost their ambitions could rise to. Two British light cruisers, the *Falmouth* and the *Nottingham*, were torpedoed and sunk while trying to get in touch with the retreating enemy. The loss had its compensation: one German submarine was sunk by shell fire and another rammed; better still, a German dreadnought of the *Westfalen* class (16,900 tons) was twice torpedoed by the British submarine E. 23. The ship was seriously damaged by the first torpedo; later in the day as she was proceeding to harbour under escort of a destroyer flotilla, she was struck by a second torpedo from E. 23. The German Admiralty in its report stated that the *Westfalen* had been damaged by a torpedo, but, "so slightly, that her sailing and fighting capacity was not impaired." The *Journal de Genève* of 25th August, reporting the German official statement, added, "perhaps the German Admiralty, 'for military reasons,' does not tell the whole truth."

Conclusion.

The future is full of promise for the Allies. The siege of the Central Empires and their dupes is tightening. In the West the Germans have had nothing to record but defeat upon defeat accompanied by huge losses and dreadful slaughter. In the

East, the German and Austrian armies have been reduced by one-fourth at least. Rumania has come in to accentuate the enemy's difficulties by forcing him to stretch out his thinning lines. The ringing in has begun from Salonika too.

Hindenburg—Germany's last hope—is on his trial. He may increase the supply of material, while the chemists at home may devise fresh horrors never thought of by civilized brains; he may send his soldiers more ruthlessly to feed the appetite of the Allied guns; he cannot breach the West, he cannot ward off the doom. Spring or Summer will bring the great disaster.

21st October.

Note :—**Events from 20th Oct. to 10th Nov.**

Rumania. 24th Oct. The Rumanians were defeated in the Dobruja, and driven beyond the Cernavoda—Constanza Railway. They blew up the Cernavoda bridge before retreating, and abandoned Constanza to the enemy.

8th Nov. The Rumanians reinforced by Russians under General Sakharoff resumed the offensive and forced the enemy back

10th Nov. The Russians are preparing to attack Cernavoda.

Verdun.—24th Oct. The French stormed Douaumont and took 5,500 unwounded prisoners; the total French casualties being 2000. The capture of Douaumont isolated Fort Vaux.

2nd Nov. The Germans abandoned Fort Vaux under compulsion.

Thus in 8 days the French recaptured at a stroke what the enemy had spent 8 months in winning piecemeal.

The loss of Douaumont is attributed to the Kaiser's strategy. He withdrew part of the German forces from Verdun for a grand assault upon the British near Bapaume. These German forces, like the Prussian Guards at Guillemont in July, were duly routed by the British; and the French meanwhile recaptured the positions they had held on 24th February.

The Kaiser and the "invincible hero"—his son, the one by his brilliant strategy, the other by his equally brilliant tactics, and both by their vanity, are valuable assets to the Allies in the West.

As in the physical life, the infirm, by shielding their infirmities, prolong their lives for many years, even outgrow their weakness and outlive the strong and vigorous, so in our moral nature, the consciousness of weakness and the great effort made to overcome it will strengthen and build up a robust character.

Be noble towards an enemy. The man who does you wrong has need of pity. To be injured is a less misfortune than to be the injurer. He who defrauds makes holes in his own pockets by which he loses more than he steals. He who slanders, wields a sword which he holds at the point; his own hands receive the wounds.

Pure thoughts, pure speech, and pure acts make pure, holy lives. Our thoughts must be pure and pleasing to God, if we wish to lead holy lives. If thoughts of God fill our minds, and our hearts burn with love for Him, our speech will be ever pleasing to Him.

Anyone can bear his burden, however heavy, until nightfall. Anyone can do his work, however hard, for one day. Anyone can live sweetly, patiently, lovingly, purely, until the sun goes down. And this is all life ever means to us—just one day at a time.

Life has its disappointments, its dreary days, its black hours and darkening clouds for all of us; yet the cares, the difficulties, the burdens of our life are the raw materials God puts into our hands, out of which we are to weave life's shining raiment and crown of glory.

To see ourselves as others see us is a good corrective to egotism. But it is not inspiring, it is depressing; also, we may reasonably object to it as not altogether an accurate glass. But to see ourselves as God sees us, is to be encouraged in our best virtues and rebuked in our most hidden faults.

THE WAR. (Appendix.)

	West.	East.	South. (*Italy—Balkans.*)	Turkey.	Naval.
August 4th.	Franco-British advance continues on the *Somme* front. The gap is being steadily widened towards the Peronne-Bapaume road. 5th. British advance 300-600 yards on a 3000 yard front beyond Pozières. 8th - 9th. French advance 300–500 yards on a 2000 yard front, north of the Somme. 13th. French capture third German lines on a 6000 yard front, penetrating 600-1000 yards, from Hardecourt to the Somme. British penetrate German lines to a depth of 400 yards on a 1 mile front near Martinpuich. 17th. Franco-British forces reach the Maurepas-Guillemont road. French seize 2000 yards of German defences east of Maurepas-Cléry road; British advance 1 mile. 24th. French storm Maurepas; advance 200 yards on a 2000 yard front.	6th. Russian advance on the left bank of the Sereth. 3000 prisoners taken. 8th. 2,000 prisoners taken on the Stokhod. Russians get astride the Kolomea-Stanislau railway. 9th. Advance on Stanislau; 7,400 prisoners taken. 11th. Stanislau occupied by Russians. 12th. The Zlota Lipa crossed; 23,000 Austrians made prisoners. 15th. The Jablonitza pass captured. 19th. Kovel and Lemberg heavily reinforced in anticipation of Russian attack. 24th. *Turks* made prisoners on the Zlota Lipa—a sure sign that Austria's plight is not enviable. 31st. Battle developing in direction of Halicz. Enemy offensive in the region of Vladimir-Volynski.	6th. Last stage of the siege of Gorizia opens. The city carried by storm on 9th.. Austrian lines captured from Tolmino to the sea, 30 mile front. 6th - 13th. 16,000 Austrians captured and 16 guns. Fighting on the Carso plateau. 27th. Italy declares war on Germany. 30th. Mount Cauriol stormed (8000 ft. high.) ——— Allies assume the offensive against Bulgars. Fighting begins from Lake Prispato to Demir Hissar.	4th. Attack by 14,000 Turks on British defences 18 miles east of Suez canal; enemy, defeated with loss of 3,100 unwounded prisoners, takes to flight. Russians driven from Mush and Bitlis by Turkish armies working up from the River valley. Mesopotamia thereby freed, for the time being, from the Russian threat. Armenia securely held by Russians.	Aust. destroyer sunk by Italian submarine. 2 G. destroyers sunk by Russians in Baltic. 2 G. submarines destroyed by B. in North Sea. Aust. submarine sunk by French near Corfu. Ger. submarine sunk by S/S. *Strathness.* Ger. mine-layer blown up in Baltic. G. dreadnought (*Westfalen* class, 18,900 tons) twice torpedoed by B. submarine; believed sunk.

	West.	East.	South. (*Italy—Balkans*,)	Turkey.	Naval.
	1st July - 31st August. 43,000 Germans made prisoners on the Somme front. At *Verdun* the French are completely masters; part of the German forces drafted to the Somme to fill the gaps. French recapture Thiaumont and Fleury.	Russians advance west of Dornawatra. 27th. Rumania declares war on Austria. 31st. Rumanians invade near Brasso, and Orsova.	8th. Serbians drive Bulgars from Priseka. 17th. French occupy Doldzeli in Serbian territory near Lake Doiran. 25th. Serbians seize hills dominating Lake Ostrovo; offensive developing. 31st. Bulgaria declares war on Rumania.	14th. Ellen, 40 miles west of Trebizond occupied by Russians. 24th. Mush reoccupied by Russians and 2,300 Turks captured.	Aust. gunboat sunk by Italian submarine. B. destroyer sunk off the Dutch coast. 2 B. light cruisers, *Nottingham* 5,400 tons, *Falmouth* 5,100 tons, torpedoed while searching for the G. fleet, near the German coast. B. armed liner *Zaida* torpedoed in Gulf of Alexandretta.
September.	3rd. British storm Guillemont. French storm the German lines from Maurepas to the Somme on a 5-mile front. 5th. French storm the German lines on a 12-mile front from Barleux to Chilly; and repulse 8 counter-attacks by the enemy. British advance 1 mile east of Guillemont.	Russians progress towards Halicz. 4th. Near Brzezany 2,700 Austrians taken prisoners. 8th. Fierce German attacks on Russian lines north of Dvinsk and in Kovel region; without effect.	15th. Italians take 2,000 prisoners on the Valoni river. 14th - 17th. Fierce fighting on the Carso plateau: 5,900 prisoners in all.	10th. Fighting at Ognot (40 miles N. W. of Mush).	Italian dreadnought, *Leonardo da Vinci* (22,300 tons) blows up in Tarentum harbour. (This accident happened on 2nd August but,

In the past two days, French took 6,650 prisoners, 28 heavy guns, 12 field-guns, over 100 machine guns. 10th. British storm Ginchy. 11th. German counter-attacks on French (Berny - Chaulnes line) and on British (Ginchy), all smashed. 13th. Between Combles and the Somme, French capture 6,000 yards of German defences. 14th. French storm Bouchavesnes. The original German lines breached. 1st July - 14th Sept. on the Somme: 54,000 Germans, 260 guns, and 647 machine-guns, captured. 15th. British storm 1,000 yards of trenches near Thiepval. Flers, High Wood, Courcelettes, Martinpuich stormed; the last original German lines pierced on a 6 mile front. 17th. Total British advance in the last two days, 6 miles to a depth of 1-2 miles. 4,000 prisoners taken. French storm Vermand Ovillers and Berny.	19th. Since 1st Sept. Russians capture 25,000 prisoners and 22 guns. 23rd. German attacks near Narotch and Baronovitchi; all defeated. 28th. Battle raging near Vladimir-Volynski. 1st June - 30th Sept.: 800,000 Austrians disposed of by the Russians. ——— 1st. Rumanians occupy Brasso. Attack developing along the whole Rumanian western front from Orsova on the Danube to Dornawatra near the Carpathians. 6th. Orsova and Herkulesbad occupied by Rumanians. 10th. Helimbar occupied by Rumanians. 17th. Fogaras occupied. 22nd. Szeklynd Varhely occupied by Roumanians. Rumanian left forced back from Petroseny to the Vulkan Pass. ———	Revolution brewing in Greece. King Constantine continues to play the traitor to his kingdom and the Allies. 7th. Turtukai in Rumania (Dobruja) captured by the enemy. 12th Silistria captured. 11th. Battle in the region of Dobritch. Bulgars driven beyond the Doiran-Demir-Hissar railway by Allies from Salonika. 16th. Bulgars lose 32 guns to the Serbians. 17th. Serbians seize Kaymaktchalan ridge. 19th. Enemy driven from Silistria; losing ground in the Dobruja.		was not officially made known till September.) French armed liner torpedoed. G. Submarine sunk by B. auxiliary.

	West.	East.	South. (*Italy—Balkans.*)	Turkey.	Naval.
	19th. French advance on Ablaincourt. 25th. British storm Morval and Lesbœufs. 26th. French storm Rancourt and Fregicourt. British storm Thiepval and Guedecourt; 4,000 prisoners. French and Brit. storm Combles. Up to date, 40 fortified villages, besides forts, redoubts, miles and miles of trenches, carried by storm. Not one solitary success for the Germans since 1st July. 28th. British advance 2000 yds. north of Flers. 29th. North of Thiepval, British storm the Schwaben redoubt, and make 1,100 prisoners.	Total Allied captures 1st July to 19th September:—490,000 men.	18th. Florina stormed by French and Russians. 21st. Bulgars driven back on the Cerna by Serbians.		
October.	2nd. British storm Eaucourt. 7th. ,, storm Le Sars. 11th. Since 1st July, on the Somme:—60,000 prisoners, 1030 machine guns, and 304 guns taken. 14th. French advance 2,000 yds. east of Belloy.	Russian advance towards Brody-Krasny railway. 4,400 prisoners taken near Halicz. 18th. Fighting near Dornawatra; and north of Halicz.	12th. Fighting on the Carso plateau; 5000 prisoners taken by Italians. From 6th Aug. to 12th September 30,880 prisoners taken on the		

19th. French occupy Sailly-Sallisel after four days of fighting. 20th. Since 1st July, British captured 29,000 prisoners.	19th. Fighting south-west of Lutzk.	Giulian front (Gorizia region.)		
	3rd. Rumanians evacuate Hermanstadt before superior enemy forces. 8th. Rumanians evacuate Brasso and fall back on their own frontier. 15th. Rumanians fall back as far as Rucaru. 16th. Enemy held up at Rucaru, Predeal and Bituz. 18th. Enemy driven back at Agas (12 miles on the Rumanian side of the Gyimes pass), with loss of 12 guns.	4th. French take Petorac and Urbeni. British take Jenikeni and Kanikoi. 6th. British take Nevolgen, and on 11th. Kalandra, Toplova, Prosenik and 8 other villages on the Struma line. 19th. Serbians storm Brod. 43 guns taken from Bulgars since 14th September.		2 German submarines sunk by Russian destroyer in the White Sea. German light-cruiser *Muenchen* torpedoed by British submarine.

From the Trenches.

Letter from Father Vion.

20th Aug., we started for the front, 6,000 men in motor cars. It was a fine sight to see the long line of cars winding along, but it was nothing compared to what we saw later on. For over one hour, uninterruptedly, motor after motor crossed us, all conveying troops.

22nd, we reached the trenches. The old "Boche" trenches had been levelled up by the artillery. Fragments of barbed wire were all that remained of the old entanglements. In the firing line, we were quiet. The *Boches* were firing over our heads on our artillery and the villages behind us, and we were cut off from the rest of the world, but we were without anxiety.

24th, we witnessed from our trenches, the storming of Maurepas by our men. It was a fairy sight; during 12 hours our guns and howitzers kept firing at the rate of 10 or 12 shells per second. We could follow the movements of our advancing troops by the rockets they sent up as signals to guide the artillery fire.

26th, I got an order transferring me to the Wireless Telegraphy Dept.

* * *

When Fr. Vion wrote the above, he was despatch-rider (*agent de liaison*). On 25th August, while riding back to headquarters after transmitting orders to the front line, he was hit on his helmet by a German bullet. The bullet glanced off the helmet, and the despatch-rider suffered no harm.

On the day previous, another despatch-rider was less fortunate. A shell exploded 500 metres away from him. A shell fragment weighing about one pound hit him on the head, and in spite of his helmet, fractured his skull. The man was picked up and placed on a hand-cart by an ambulance sergeant, who happened to be a priest. On their way to the ambulance, they were stopped by German artillery barrage or curtain of fire. The sergeant and the wounded man managed to scramble through the barrage, but they had to leave the hand-cart behind. The next day the sergeant went back in search of his hand-cart. There was no hand-cart to be found. While he was looking for it, he was caught in a hurricane bombardment and buried alive. Fortunately, two '*poilus*' happened to pass by and dug him out. He was unhurt.

* * *

I am now attached to the wireless department of a group of heavy artillery, and as I am on the General Staff, I am within safe distance from the batteries......

My dwelling is an old artillery dug-out. I go to bed and rise at regular hours; I have a bed of straw, a blanket, even a pillow which is a sand-bag filled with straw instead of sand, a table, and hot meals at regular hours. Overhead a layer of tree-logs with two metres of earth above, as protection against shells.

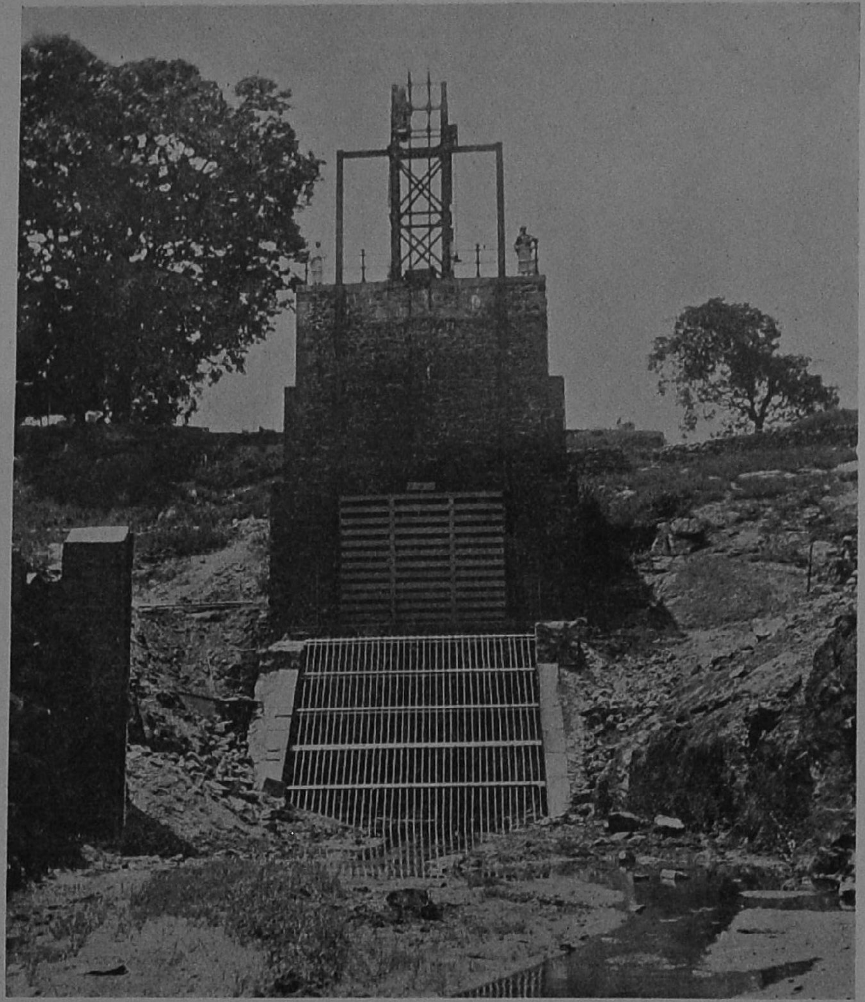
* * *

From a correspondent, at Abbeville :— "The table on which I am writing shakes and swings to and fro, to the rythm of the motor lorries that fly up to the front along the road 30 metres from here. These convoys begin to run in the evening, and run the whole night. Abbeville is a regular English town. Hindus * are numerous here...."

Letter from Father Chanut, through Father Leroyer.

I was wounded on 13th September, while I was superintending the construction of a communication trench. From 9 P.M. on the 12th till 2 A.M. the next day, the *Boches* tried their best to blow me up. They blazed away at us for all they were worth. Would you

* The Indian troops are called "Hindus" by the French.



THE SLUICE-GATE.

THE DEBOUCHURE.

THE PERIYAR HEAD WORKS.

believe it, I got into the German trench that night? The *Boches* did not want to let me go, but I slipped away somehow, crawling on all fours, and rejoined my men. I got wounded in the left thigh, by a rifle shot fired almost at arm's length. The bullet made a large gash and carried away a big piece of flesh. Happily the sciatic nerve was untouched, though it narrowly escaped injury. So I shall still enjoy the use of all my limbs. None of my men were wounded though they were only 20 or 30 yards from the enemy.

* * *

Father Chanut has won the War Cross. He is in hospital at Limoges.

The Periyar Head Works.

[*By* S. N. RAMAMURTI, *II U. Class.*]

The accompanying photographs represent various views of the Periyar Head Works, an irrigation work which has been described as "the boldest and most imaginative irrigation work in the world." The work in brief is this. The Periyar river which flowed down the Western Ghats through a region of superabundant rainfall into the Arabian Sea, was dammed, turned back on its watershed, and by means of a tunnel through the intervening hill, made to pour its water down the eastern slopes of the Ghats over lands fertile but starving for want of moisture.

The final work was the result of a number of investigations and of plans which had been maturing for many years. The first proposal was only to redirect the water by making an earthen dam at a cost of 17½ lakhs. Then the reservoir was proposed and the complete estimate amounted to 54 lakhs. A question arose whether the water could be obstructed by a simple earthen dam. But finally, a masonry dam, designed by Colonel John Pennicuick R. E. was sanctioned at an estimated cost of 62 lakhs. The work was begun late in 1887 during the Governorship of Baron Connemara, G.C.I.E. The site of the head-works is in the Travancore territory, and it was therefore agreed to pay the Travancore Government an annuity of Rs. 40,000 for 999 years with the option of renewal, sovereign powers being reserved to the Maharaja himself.

The difficulties experienced in the execution of the project were too many to enumerate. The locality itself is a very unhealthy jungle of over 3000 ft. elevation. Incessant heavy rains and malaria rendered the work almost impossible. Even unskilled labour was unobtainable. All the plant and material had to be transported at a great cost from a railway 76 miles away and up a steep ghat-road. To minimise the latter difficulty, a canal was dug out from the head of the ghat to the dam site, and later on, a wire-rope way driven by a turbine was put up from the foot of the ghat to the terminus of the canal. Again, the difficulty of laying the foundation for a huge dam in a river of which the discharge is more than half of that of the Niagara, and which is liable to the most sudden and heaviest freshets, of which one registered 120,000 cubic feet per second, was immense. The work was swept away again and again. The operations were described by the Chief Engineer Colonel Pennicuick as "the most anxious, difficult, and exhausting" of any which he had come across in his experience. After the foundations were all in, further difficulties arose in passing the ordinary flow of the river and the frequent heavy showers without damage to the masonry of the dam. This, after many expedients had been tried, was eventually effected by means of a tunnel or culvert in the body of the dam itself, which was afterwards closed and plugged.

On the left of this dam a smaller extension of 220 ft. was built to close a

dip in the ground, and an escape of 435 ft. was made on the right which was later converted into a regulator. A view of these works is given in the first photograph, a pleasant view which one can have from a distance while merrily paddling a boat or seated on the deck of a steam launch. The huge expanse of water is the lake, and the few buildings are the quarters of the poor semi-sylvan occupants of the place.

The second photograph gives a picture of the main dam which was practically finished in October 1895. The bold memorial speaks for itself. Including the parapets the dam is 176 feet high above the bed of the river, 1240 feet long, only 12 feet broad at the top, but 145 feet wide at the base. The front wall is almost perpendicular while the rear wall has a good slope. Both these walls are of rubble masonry and the interior is filled with concrete in surki mortar. The lake impounded by this dam covers more than eight thousand acres and has a maximum depth of 176 feet.

The next photograph is that of the regulator which stands in the place of the original simple escape, and which is seen to the right in the first photo like a ladder placed edgewise. It was erected to increase the storage capacity of the lake and at the same time to safegaurd the dam against extraordinary floods. It stands on a considerably higher level than the dam itself. In fact the original simple escape was at first only 14 feet below the crest of the dam, but it was lowered still more, by eight feet, and a regulator fitted with moveable shutters 16 ft. high, was constructed across it. These are generally closed, but during dangerous floods they are raised to increase the waterway on the escape. They raise the full supply level of the lake by eight feet and its storage capacity by 2361 millions of cubic feet. The rear view is given in the next picture. The binding walls, and the crossbow-like structure of the shutters are worth observing. What a contrast we have here! How very smooth is the bed in the front and how rugged it is here!

The water thus confined passes through an open canal 5340 ft. long and twenty one feet wide; and before entering a dark closed tunnel it has to cross a sluice-gate to be controlled in its flow. This sluice-gate was built after the Stoney's patent process. It is really an ornament at the entrance to the head-works. Sometimes the current carries with it huge trees, and lest these trees should block the sluice, it is provided with gratings to stop them. Then the water enters the tunnel which is 5700 ft. long, over a mile, twelve feet wide, and seven and a half feet high, and has a gradient of 1 in 75. It was all blasted through solid rock, machine drills, worked by compressed air supplied by a turbine plant, being employed. The water then leaves the tunnel and the debouchure is 500 feet long and gives a good fall. It has been proposed to utilise this fall to generate electric power. The two photographs of the debouchure were taken during the dry and wet seasons from different places.

The works were opened in October 1895, by Lord Wenlock G. C. I. E., then Governor of Madras. The construction estimate was closed in March 1897 and the direct expenditure up to then had amounted to 81·3 lakhs, of which $42\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs was for the head-works only, *i.e.*, for the dam and the tunnel. Other works remained to be done which must have raised the amount to 100 lakhs of Rs. ere now.

100 lakhs and an annuity of Rs. 40,000 to continue for 999 years is no small amount; and one would immediately ask, "What benefit has been derived from it all?" Why, the cultivable land commanded by this water consists of 106,000 acres of first crop and 51,000 acres of second crop in Government lands, and 20,000 and 9,000 acres of first and second crop lands respectively, or Zamin and whole Inam wet lands. How useful is now all this water which was formerly running to waste into the ocean!

Scraps.

Answers to Questions asked by *Anon.* in September :—

1. A bill is like a gun when it is presented and discharged.

2. When an only son eats his breakfast it vanishes into empty air (heir).

3. Two heads are better than one in a barrel.

4. Happiness increases the more it is shared with others.

5. Your photograph is taken from you before you get it.

6. The men who make their mark are those that cannot write.

7. The oldest piece of furniture in the world is the multiplication table.

8. The largest room in the world is the room for improvement.

9. The door-bell never asks any questions and yet it requires many answers.

10. The ticket-collector cuts a hole in your ticket in order to let you through.

11. Pianos of all things bear the noblest character, for they are upright and square.

12. The magazine likely to give the best report of a fire is the powder-magazine.

The Magic 15 Puzzle.

The puzzle was at once answered by so many that no explanation seems necessary. However, in case any one should still be looking for the solution :

2	7	6
9	5	1
4	3	8

A Scrap of Paper.

In giving judgment in a case in which a landlord had said that his tenant regarded his agreement for tenancy "as a mere scrap of paper," the Court in Paris recently decided that, "whereas the expression, 'a scrap of paper,' has now become history, and will for ever brand the nation which has exceeded all records of duplicity and infamy, and whereas to apply such terms to any person is, and will always be, the gravest insult to his honour, therefore the landlord must pay £240 damages to the tenant for libel." The Court added its regret that it could not give heavier damages—having given the maximum. We do not doubt that an English jury would award equally exemplary damages in similar circumstances.

* * *

A sea-serpent is an enormous marine animal of serpent-like form, frequently seen and described by credulous sailors, imaginative landsmen, and common liars.

* * *

Queen Elizabeth was a tall thin woman, but she was a stout protestant.

* * *

"There is only one thing we know about death," said the doctor, "that it is always fatal."

The same doctor said to a patient who had a sore on the back of his head, "It is not dangerous just now, but you must keep your eye on it."

* * *

At an 'At Home' *A* said to *B*, "This is a slow, uninteresting show, isn't it ?" *B*, "Yes, very tame indeed." *A*, "Oh ! let us go home ; no use remaining here." *B*, "I can't go." *A*, "Why not ?" *B*, "Well, you see, I'm the host".

* * *

When has a rope only one end ?—When the other end is cut off.

* * *

Salt is a thing that makes potatoes very bad, when there is none.

* * *

College Notes.

The prize distribution of the College was held on Saturday 23rd Sept. Mr. Justice Seshagiri Iyer presided. There was a large attendance, and after the distribution of prizes to the College and High School students, the following address was delivered by him :—

" We have heard the exceedingly interesting report read. Trichinopoly can congratulate itself, and I congratulate Father Bertram on the good work done this year. He has touched upon certain points in connection with the examinations in this Presidency. I have been put on a committee to consider the very question Father Bertram mooted. Therefore, I am unable to speak as fully as he has done about the severity of the tests or to account for the failures. None the less do I agree with him in thinking that a great deal of readjustment is necessary, if the young students in Madras are not to be physical and moral wrecks. When the Committee has finished its labours, some way may be found by which the life of the student can be made more profitable and agreeable.

I ask you in imagination to travel back forty years. It was in the year 1878 that I read in the S. P. G. College in the F. A. Class. For the 11 students who studied for F. A. in 1878, I think there may be something like 1,100 studying for the Intermediate in this city alone. I do not think this phenomenal development in Trichinopoly is any index to the progress of education in other parts of the Presidency. If my recollection serves me right, a large number of schools have ceased to work. I believe that something like 40 High Schools and a number of Second Grade Colleges have ceased to work within the last 40 years. There are, however, two First Grade Colleges in this city and a large number of High and Secondary Schools which speak eloquently to the fact that considerable progress has been made in University education in this centre.

Sir C. Sankaran Nair, when I happened to talk with him on this subject, told me that unless there was one First Grade College and two Second Grade Colleges in each district, one could not say that there had been satisfactory progress in this country. Now I know, as a matter of fact, that students who pass the School Final tests are refused admission to College for want of space. This fact shows that facilities are wanted to enable students to pursue their career in the University. Therefore it is absolutely necessary that some attempts should be made by the people in this country to start Colleges wherein boys will be able to get their education; access to the University classes should not be denied by the College authorities. Gentlemen, the number of failures in the School Final and the Intermediate examinations may to some extent be due also to the fact that Colleges are overcrowded. It may not be true of the St. Joseph's College, but it is true of some schools and colleges of Madras. Unless more Colleges are started, the number of failures must necessarily be large and there will be a large number of people denied admission into the College classes.

Some two years back there was a meeting in the house of a friend of mine to apply to the University authorities for permission to open another College in this place. I find that attempt has been entirely neglected. I appeal to my friends in Trichinopoly to think over this matter. Not only should there be more Colleges, but there is undoubtedly necessity for more Universities. At present one University is expected to deal with the educational wants of 45 millions of people. If this University has committed mistakes, it

is because more Universities are necessary to look after the interests of education over such a large area and such a large population. Somebody put forward a claim for a University at Madura. Claims may be put forward for other centres too. If any University is to be started, I think it must be in Trichinopoly (Cheers). After Madras, the largest school-going population is to be found here and a University cannot be better situated than at Trichinopoly. In opening a University care must be taken that the University is not of the type existing in Madras at present. There should be a new type of University if the people of this country are to advance. The literary Universities have done their work. All over the world attempts are being made to start Industrial Universities, Scientific Universities, and Universities of Commerce. There is no attempt to start any Literary Universities in the West. If there is to be a reduplication of Universities, I hope you will make it clear that we do not want Universities of the type of the one we have at Madras, but Universities like those of Leeds and Manchester.

Gentlemen, this subject leads me back to the discussion I referred to regarding the nature of education that ought to be given. Lord Haldane, starting the discussion, pointed out that the object of the English University was to make its students gentlemen, while that of the German Universities was to produce a class of people who would thirst after the goods of others. If one may make a comparison not only between the education of the English and German Universities, but also between them and the education in India, I think that education in this country has always tended to make the boys shun the pleasures and even activities of life. We have to work for types of Universities which aim at ennobling the soul, elevating the man, and making the individual less self-centred. I think that something should be done to make a blend of the three. You can have an education which enables the student to be plucky and assertive, to be self-scrificing, and to be respectful and responsive to the feelings of others. Then we shall have an ideal education for our boys. I hope the time has come when there will be a commission appointed to suggest the sort of education which would give all these three qualities.

It may be said that during recent years an attempt has been made to give a sort of specialised education in some of the subjects, especially a sort of scientific education to boys. It seems to me that the craze for specialisation which has been introduced in the lower forms has had the effect of making the boys less educated than they ought to be. Professor Huxley is said to have made the remark that if you want to make a man a specialist, you must ground him in general education in the earlier courses; that if you begin specialisation at the outset, the boy will not be able to understand the object for which the specialisation is made; but that if, on the other hand, he is well grounded in general education, when he begins to specialise he will be able to see the real advantages of specialisation and be able to follow up the specialised course. The time is come when some attempts should be made to put a check on this tendency to specialise in the earlier classes, for example, in the School Final and Intermediate classes, and to give the boys a general education in these classes so that they may have in the B.A. course genuine specialisation.

Gentlemen, I have so far touched upon what I considered to be the requirements of a sound University education and the ways and means by which desirable readjustments may be brought about. The air is full of educational reforms. We have got a new Minister of Education who is anxious to know the way in which improvements can be made, and it is the duty of persons who think about these subjects to give expression to their ideas."

The President's speech was followed by a short farce, "The Fast Train." Messrs. Jerome D'Sousa, K. L. Thomas, and K. J. Cletus kept the audience in roars of laughter for three quarters of an hour. The band played various selections during the function which it brought to a close with GOD SAVE THE KING.

The Union.

"Imperialism and Federalism."

An extraordinary meeting of the College Union was held at 5-30 P.M. on Monday the 25th September 1916 in the Lawley Hall, with Eardley Norton, Esq., Bar-at-law, Calcutta, in the chair. M. R. Ry. A. Rangasamy Iyengar Avl., B.A., B.L., Editor of the *Swadesamitran*, delivered a lecture on "Imperialism and Federalism." The hall was packed to the full with the students of Trichy, the staff of the St. Joseph's College, and the *elite* of the town.

The chairman, in introducing the Lecturer, said that he was anxious to hear an Indian and the successor in the life-work of his old friend the late Mr. G. Subramania Iyer, on so interesting a subject as "Imperialism and Federalism."

In the course of his thoughtful address Mr. Rangasamy Iyengar said that at a time when all of us were speculating on the profound changes which the end of the war must inevitably bring about in our ideas of future evolution, it seemed to him that it would be the duty of students to understand the significance of the various speculations already being debated as to the reconstruction of the map of the world.

The circumstances under which the different parts of the Empire had now rallied together to preserve its integrity and the principles of freedom and culture, had naturally enough suggested the desirability of a closer organisation and a more definite constitution for the Empire in all its parts than had so far been admitted.

Though a commonwealth of nations had not yet come into being, still the commonwealth of the British Empire was believed at the present time to have become necessary in consequence of the eye-opener which Germany had provided for all believers in international peace.

To his mind, a decision as to the position of the dependencies in a closer union would make it much more easy for a workable Imperial constitution to be formed. But the relations even between the colonies and the mother-country were by no means free from difficulty. The war had made it necessary for politicians to revise their ideas. In the case of India, the idea that it was to be governed by the maintenance of a standing army and a bureaucracy was fast ceasing to exist, and it was on all hands recognised that if the resources of the Indian Empire were to be so profusely availed of as they had been, it was necessary to treat the peoples of that Empire on the same footing of comradeship and equality as had been extended to the other parts of the British Empire, who were contributing by no means more than the Indian Empire.

Whether it was possible or desirable to confine any new Imperial organisation to matters of defence, of foreign politics, and of a few other common affairs, or whether the time had come for the realisation of the *Imperial Ideal* and for framing a constitution for the whole Empire, was a question to be decided at the conclusion of the war. Such a surrender was not one easy to persuade the British electorate to acquiesce in. But any position of superiority over the other parts of the Empire which might be left to the United Kingdom was so far as we might gauge from colonial opinion, not likely to be acceptable to the latter. This might be due to an anxiety lest, backed by the strength of the dependencies, the United Kingdom might overbear the views of the colonies in the common organisation. It was also difficult to imagine, on the other side, that

after the proofs which India had given of the feelings of imperial unity, any protection or tutelage by the colonies would be acquisced in by people who had, as Sir Valentine Chirol observed, much more vividly realised their oneness with the British Raj than the Britisher was likely to have done.

The Chairman, who rose amid loud applause, in winding up the proceedings, made a long and interesting speech, in the course of which he said that the dream of confederation was not novel. It had been the dream, not merely of poets, but of practical politicians so unromantic as Joseph Chamberlain. But here, as in every other branch of political reform, England, true to her historical evolution, had hitherto blocked the way with her "*Non Possumus*". One unintended gift came to us from the nation which had violated every moral principle and, transgressing alike the codes of honour and of truth and every axiom of accepted conventional law, had stained the garments of Christianity by its blasphemous revolt against all that Christ ever preached. If, as must be the case, war had solved the fancied impossibilities of a closer political union between Great Britain and her children, in no small measure would the solution be fostered by the barbarities of a nation unfit for many long years to come to touch the latchets of Christian civilisation.

This war would not have been waged in vain if, in return for all the martyrdom bravely met and bravely endured, England could build for herself and for the world a living rampart from behind which the Canadian and the Newfoundlander, the South African, the Australians and the Newzealander, should make impossible any repetition of German brutality or Austrian acquiescence. Granting that the near future would witness a wise, if startling, change in the political system of Great Britain and her self-governing colonies, he believed also important concessions would be granted to India.

Mr. Norton then commented on the folly of the revolver and the bomb, which, however lamentable, was but a passing epidemic which left the real loyalty of the Indians untouched, and on the widening prospects of our political position.

The concluding portion of the Presidential remarks was addressed to the students assembled in the Hall :—

"It is pure pleasure to me to be speaking in this splendid hall, fit monument to the altruism of that splendid mission whose activities pervade India and dedicated to education. Let me ask you to remember what the aim and trend of real education are. These do not lie in the art of correct quotations from English poets and English historians, in the science, if I may so dub it, of bandying law cases in court without reference to book or note. They lie in the formation of character........... Remember that upon you lies great responsibility as well as a high privilege. You are the boys of to-day who will be the men of to-morrow. To you from older and weaker hands will be transmitted the torch of progress and reform. Who knows but that, as I speak to-night,

'Mute inglorious Milton here may rest,
Some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood.'

But even if that be not so, I want each boy here to remember, he is an individual in life's stage play, upon the right performance of whose civic duties rests not merely his own selfish success, but his silent contribution to the amelioration of his neighbour and of his country. That is worth living for, fighting for, dying for. It is in the hope that I may have helped some lad to-night in his struggle through life, that I say to you one and all, God speed you, and good-bye."

The Chairman and the Lecturer were garlanded and thanked, and the meeting dissolved.

S. Subbarama Iyer,
General Secretary.

Union Office.
13th November, '16.

Congratulations.

The members of the College Union took advantage of a meeting of the Literary and Elocution Section held in the Lawley Hall on Tuesday the 14th November at 4-5 p.m. to express their satisfaction at the election of Rev. Fr. Bertram S.J., to the Syndicate of the University.

The General Secretary proposed, and Mr. R. S. Srinivasan of the III Hons. seconded, that 'this meeting of the St. Joseph's College Union empowers the Secretary to present the congratulations of the members of the Union to Rev. Fr. Bertram S.J., its President, on his election to the Syndicate of the University of Madras.' The proposal was carried by acclamation.

S. SUBBARAMA IYER.
General Secretary.

UNION OFFICE.
15th November, '16.

The Rector's Gold Medal.

The members of the College Union are invited to compete for the Gold Medal annually presented by the Rector of the College to the Union for essay-writing.

There must be not less than 15 competitors. The medal will be awarded on the 'Anniversary' of the College Union. The essay should be of about 2500 words (about 12 pages) and should be handed to the General Secretary on or before the 25th January 1917.

One of the following subjects must be chosen.

1 *One* of the poets—Campbell, Longfellow, Cowper, Francis Thompson.

2. The Village Panchayat.

3. Journalism.

4. Virtues required in a Political leader.

5. India's need of Specialists.

6. Professional and business openings for Graduates.

7. Ideals of Ancient India as revealed in the Epics.

8. Hostel Life— *or* —Boarding Life.

9. The Structure of the Sanskrit Drama.

10. The place the Vernaculars ought to have in Schools and Colleges.

S. SUBBARAMA IYER,
General Secretary.

UNION OFFICE.
15th November, '16.

Sports.

Sports have been in full swing since the re-opening.

The first month of the academic year witnessed a Foot-Ball Tournament (sixes), organised by Rev. Father Pruvot. It was merely a return to what had been taking place in years previous to 1913. It was intended to revive foot-ball in Trichy and to encourage the College Team in particular to shake off the lassitude that had for a time come over it. This purpose was realised. Many teams entered the lists, of which the *S. P. G. College* teams and *Moonlight* were prominent. The tournament was held on the Rogers ground. The A teams of the two Colleges met in the finals. The S. P. G. College team won. In a short but a splendid speech M. R. Ry. S. K. Matrubhutam Iyer Avl., B.A., L.T., of the High School, Srirangam, commended the winners on their deserved success, and then presented them with silver medals.

The fortunes of the College-team took a different turn subsequently. *The Father Sewell Memorial Tournament* followed immediately in October; and our players distinguished themselves. Though the teams that competed for this year's tournament were few, they all played so well that it is a credit for our players to have come off with success. They had, further, the satisfaction of receiving silver medals and the cup from the hands of the same gentleman who had offered them words of encouragement when they were the runners up on a previous occasion.

In the case of Badmintom, fickle fortune changed sides. This year's Athletic Association Tournament was the first occasion on which the College team's superiority was seriously disputed. It had to give away to a local team the shield which it had kept for so many years. Nor was its part in the Presidency Tournament worthy of special note. The High School team, however, came to rescue us from a blank record by winning the Association Shield for the High School teams.

The College Presidency Badminton Tournament was an unparalleled success this year. The number of the competing teams was unusually large, about 30, and consequently, the Tournament ran for a week and more, providing those interested in the game with enjoyment. Nagore and Mannargudi, the fountain source of Badminton, sent in their representatives as well as Kumbaconum, Tanjore, and Madras. The striking event in the early part of the Tournament was the struggle of *Dr. Rajan's team,* of doctors and officials against little boys of ten years old, reminding us of the fight between the Cranes and the Pigmies. *The Hamidia, Findlay, The Allies, The Lotus,* and *The Muslims* showed skill of a very high order, but they had to yield to the force of *The Hesperus* and the calm and delicate manipulations of *The Napiers.* These last two teams stood for the finals, and *The Napiers* won.

The Managing Committee were very fortunate this year in having particularly distinguished presidents. M.R.Ry. Ramanujam Iyengar Avl. B.A., Deputy Superintendent of Police, presided and Mrs. Ramanujam Iyengar gave avay the prizes. After a short introductory speech by M. R. Ry. Arpudaswami Udayar Avl., B.A., L.T., and after the distribution of the prizes, the President rose amidst cheers and spoke on behalf of his wife and himself. He fully appreciated the dexterous play of the *Hesperus* and the *Napiers*; and he congratulated the organisers of the Tournament on their success. With a vote of thanks to the President and others, the Tournament concluded.

K. N. RAGHAVACHARI, B.A.

The Grigg Memorial Sports, Trichinopoly.

Trichinoply, 29th Oct.—These annual Sports took place yesterday afternoon, at the Trichinopoly Athletic Association grounds, and attracted a large crowd of spectators. They went off with great success from every point of view. It was a very hot afternoon, and the delicious tea and refreshments were much enjoyed. The Boy Scouts were a great help and kept the crowd in order very well indeed; they were specially complimented and thanked for their services. The Band of the South Indian Volunteers played during the afternoon. Mr. Noel Davies, the Honorary Secretary, is much to be congratulated on the very successful manner in which the sports were carried out. The Grigg Memorial Medal was won by C. P. Krishna Pillay (St Joseph's), the District Medal by Daniel (S. P. G. High School) and the Coronation by St. Joseph's High School.

Mrs. Bice very kindly gave away the prizes. Before the distribution of prizes, Mr. Bice made a speech, in which he said that he wished to congratulate those who had won on their success, and those who had not, on the good sporting fight they had put up. The noticeable feature of the evening's sport was the excellent sporting spirit they had shown. He was sure that they wished him on their behalf to express their appreciation to those gentlemen who by their labours had made the sports a success. He would on their behalf thank Mr. Noel Davies, on whom the burden of the arrangements had fallen, and Messrs. Acres and Peddle, the judges, for kindly helping them. He congratulated them all once again. The following are the events and the results:

100 Yards Race.—(Colleges.)–Krishna Pillay, St. Joseph's, 1; Samuel, S. P. G., 2; Simon St. Joseph's 3. (High Schools.)—Daniel, S. P. G., 1;

Susai Michael, St. Joseph's 2; Savarimuthu, St. Joseph's, 3.

Long Jump. — (Colleges.)—Krishna Pillay, St. Joseph's, 1; Kuruvilla, St. Joseph's, 2; Purushotam, S. P. G., 3. (High School.)—Daniel, S. P. G. 1; Dannam, S. P. G., 2; Susai Michael, St. Joseph's, 3.

Quarter Mile Race. — (Colleges.) — Simon, St. Joseph's, 1; Raphael, St. Joseph's, 2; Chidambaram, S. P. G., 3. (High Schools.)—Paul, St. Joseph's, 1; Savarimuthu, St. Joseph's, 2; Doraiswamy, St. Joseph's 3.

Kicking Football.—(Colleges.)-Simon, St. Joseph's, 1; Krishna Pillay, St. Joseph's, 2; Parameswaram Pillay, S. P. G., 3. (High Schools.)—Highmoor, S. P. G., 1; Akbar, St. Joseph's, 2; Dannam, S. P. G., 3.

High Jump.— (Colleges.)— Krishna Pillay, St. Joseph's, 1; Ekambaram, St. Joseph's 2; Chidambaram, S. P. G.. 3; (High Schools.)-Akbar, St. Joseph's. 1; Highmoor, S. P. G., 2; Chelliah, S. P. G., 3

Throwing Cricket Ball.—(Colleges.)— Kuruvilla, St. Joseph's, 1; Benedict, St. Joseph's, 2; Samuel, S. P. G., 3. (High Schools.) — Doraiswamy, St. Joseph's, 1; Gengle, St. Joseph's, 2; Daniel, S. P. G., 3.

Half Mile Race.—(Colleges.)—Simon, St. Joseph's, 1; David, St. Joseph's, 2; A. V. Narayanaswamy, S. P. G., 3. (High Schools.)—Savarimuthu, St. Joseph's, 1; Susai Naicker, 2; Chelliah, S. P. G., 3.

Flag Race.—(Colleges.)-St. Joseph's. (High Schools.) S. P. G.

Tug-of-War.—St. Joseph's *vs.* S.P.G. St. Joseph's won.

Boy Scouts.—Dog Petrol *vs.* Jackal Petrol. Jackal won.

Obituary.

From a telegram received from Paris this morning 3rd November, we learn that Father A. Constant has been killed.

Father Constant will be remembered by his former pupils as an enthusiastic Science teacher in the days when the High School was still at Clive's. Soon after the transfer of the school to Boulevard Road, in 1910, he left the College and went home for his theological studies. He hardly finished his course when the war broke out. He joined the colours and was attached to the British army as interpreter. About one year ago, he reverted to the French armies, but as chaplain. We have no particulars about his death but it is permissible to conjecture that death overtook him while engaged in the discharge of his charitable office.

Father Constant was born on Christmas Day 1878 and came out to India in 1897.

* * *

With deep sorrow, we record the premature death of K. R. Ranga Rao, student, IV. U. C., at Guindy, on 26th June, 1916. To many of the students of this institution the memory of Ranga Rao is still fresh and inspiring.

After a distinguished career in the High School, Srirangam, where he won several prizes for general proficiency, Ranga Rao entered this institution. He was awarded the History scholarship in the I U. Class, which he retained with credit till the end of the course. He was very industrious and painstaking and was popular with all his fellow-students. For his hard work he was rewarded with a first class in the Intermediate examination.

He was entitled to a scholarship in the B.A., course, but he nobly refused to accept it on the ground, that, as he was not in need of it, he would be depriving a poor deserving student of

a great help. He worked hard, and towards the end of his course fell ill. During all the four years he remained in the college, he was an active member of the College Union, and the success of the Silver Jubilee function of the Union was to a large extent due to him. It is no exaggeration to say that he was the *beau ideal* of a student.

He died very young. Though young, he had the prudence of mature years and settled his worldly affairs with the calmness of one who has realised that death is but the natural sequence of life. Providence probably thought that Ranga Rao was too good for this world, and lest he should be contaminated with its wickedness, snatched him away from our midst. May his soul rest in peace!

Much sympathy is felt for his young widow and infant daughter.

Ranga Rao leaves behind him his parents and brothers and a large circle of friends to bemoan his loss.

Correspondence.

Shakespeare's Great Omission.

I.

To

THE EDITOR,

Mr. Ponnuswami's answer to my criticism of his original article led me to consider more carefully his position and mine. I was struck by his reference to Mrs. Jameson who says that the interest Constance and Volumina excite arises from their *situation* as mothers. Besides, I recollected that great authorities have it that a mother cannot be made the subject matter of a dramatic composition, and scarcely, if at all, of a novel. If this be so, then Mr. Ponnuswami must join with me in saying that Shakespeare was not guilty of any omission. No one can be accused of a sin of omission unless he omits to do what he should, or at least could have done. So far as I know, no drama has been written with the ideal mother as main theme. Perhaps Shakespeare has made motherhood enter into the drama as far as it is possible to do so, in King John and in Coriolanus. Anyhow, until someone come forward with a drama in which motherhood is the main theme or with evidence that motherhood can be the main theme of a drama, Shakespeare must not be accused of an omission.

M. RAMAN NAYAR,

IV Class.

II.

SIR,

Shakespeare has not treated the character of a mother as the source of dramatic action, for a mother's feelings cannot be the source of the internal and external conflict which constitute dramatic action. Jealousy and love, and loyalty and ambition may be in conflict; convictions even may clash, and the clash may set terrible actions in motion. But a mother's love, like the love of the saint for holiness, or of the artist for beauty of forms and colours, or of the philosopher for truth, is not a love of the battling type; it cannot originate dramatic action. It comes within the range of the lyric poet not of the dramatist. Until it is shown that Shakespeare has omitted to portray any passion or feeling that can spring forth in conflict with another, he must not be accused of an *omission* great or

small; and until then we must continue to believe with Hazlitt that Shakespeare's range, or his *forte*, is everything.

ANON.

[This correspondence may now cease. *Anon* seems to have answered the question. *Ed.*]

The Main Plot of 'The Merchant of Venice.'

I.

SIR,

The writer of the article on 'The Main Plot of the Merchant of Venice' (September Magazine) has omitted all that might be said in favour of the bond-story as the main plot. May I venture to supply the omission.

The bond-story takes up our attention from the outset of the play. We see Antonio's inexplicable melancholy, and we see him sign a preposterous bond in order to help his friend. We hear of his losses and the forfeiture of the bond; we witness his trial, his acquittal, and the unexpected return of prosperity to him. These are the main facts of bond-story, and they predominate in the play. The casket-story is subordinate. The purpose of a foil is to enhance the lustre of a gem; the casket-story serves chiefly to heighten our interest in the bond-story by setting off on a bright background the semi-tragic theme and its graver characters. The minor story fills up the interval of three months between the signing of the bond the and the forfeiture. All this would show that the bond-story is the main plot.

This view is, moreover, supported by the fact that Antonio is the hero of the play. He alone realizes the definition of a hero. The hero of a play is that character who fixes our attention from start to finish. The hero according to one critic "is not the strongest or greatest character, but rather the one who is the basis of the story, and who gives it its continuity, though his part may be passive rather than active. "Shylock, no doubt is a towering character and excites pity in trial scene. We hear nothing of him after that scene. Bassanio, too, is an interesting character especially in the casket scene, but our interest in him ends with his happy choice.

Antonio, on the contrary, fixes our attention from the very first line of the play and keeps it to the end of the play. He is also the basis of the story; it starts from him and every incident is vitally connected with him. The play begins in his melancholy, is pervaded by his misfortunes, and ends in his prosperity and happiness. His influence in the play continues uninterrupted although he does not appear in many of the scenes. He does not, it is true, appear before us during the interval of three months; but still we hear of him every moment; we hear of his losses and the forfeiture of the bond. The play is set in motion by him and it continues under the impulse imparted by him. He is, therefore, the hero of the play.

If it must be admitted that Antonio is the hero of the play, it is clear that the bond-story is the main plot; for it is with the main plot that the hero is most intimately connected.

The great objection to this opinion is that the bond-story is tragic and cannot be the main theme of a romantic comedy. But really the bond-story is not a tragic story. Romance steals into it when a woman comes to the court as a doctor of laws to cut the knot. The friendship between the hero and Bassanio is romantic. The bond-story trembles on the brink of tragedy during the trial scene, but its issue is happiness, triumph, and prosperity. It furnishes, therefore, a very appropriate plot for a romantic comedy.

The play works out satisfactorily on the assumption that the bond-story is the main theme.

"*A student of II. U. Class.*"

II.

SIR,

Your contributor began his essay by rejecting the theory of Mr. Boas who holds that there is no central theme in *The Merchant of Venice* about which the rest of the play hinges; that the stories in the play are so well connected that one is necessary for the other, and neither can be dispensed with; the one is as important as the other for the whole; and that neither of them is influenced greatly by the third story or the Jessica episode in the play. All this seems so evident as to compel assent.

In his arguments in favour of the casket-story as the main theme, he speaks of the hero and heroine of the play and of their connection with the central theme of the play; but he does not refer to the title of the play. Shakespeare, however, generally named his plays with a particular design and purpose, to bring out the general outstanding persons or features in the plays. This would lead us to suspect that the bond-story in which the Merchant of Venice is concerned is the main theme of the play.

Assuming that grandeur of character must distinguish the hero of a play, your contributor infers that Bassanio is the hero of our play. Is grandeur of character essential in the conception of a hero of a play? But Richard the third is the hero of a play. Surely, then, Antonio and Shylock bad as he is may be the heroes of 'The Merchant of Venice'.

Another reason for his contention is that as 'The Merchant of Venice' is a romantic comedy, there cannot be a complete tragic ation in it; hence the bond-story cannot be the main theme, for its action is completely tragic. The principle involved is sound, but not so inference. The action of the bond-story, *i.e*, Antonio's escape from Shylock's bond contains tragic situations, but it is certainly not tragic. Besides, the bond-story is no less romautic than the casket-story. So this test proves that the bond-story is the main theme.

For dramatic unity, the bond-story should be taken to be the main-theme. It accounts for all the incidents of the play, though it is set in motion by the love affair of Bassanio, *i.e.*, the casket-story which brings in the sprightly intellectual lady Portia to rescue Antonio from final catastrope. It also accounts for the introduction of the various suitors of Portia whose presence gives an air of probability to the play, by creating in us the impression of the lapse of the three month's time between the singing of the bond and its execution. It accounts for the introduction of the Jessica-story which exites the passions of Shylock to such a high pitch that he hardens his soul and prepares himself for the cruel task of taking the life of Antonio. Again, the episode of the rings has indeed a true and apparent bearing on the bond-story; it depends upon it for its occasion and complication, though it attains completion, by the casket-atory. So the connection of these various actions and incidents with the bond-story is very obvious.

Your contributor decides that the casket-story is the main theme, because a greater number of scenes deal with this story than with the other;—the very reason why he should have judged otherwise. The greater number of scenes in the casket-story only tend *to* give, as I already said, probability to the play by filling up the time of three month's before the execution of the bond the chief incident of the bond-story.

As regards the completeness of piçtursque presentment of the stories, both are equally unsatisfactory. We know as much of Portia's household and character as we know of Antonio's, and no more of the ill-treatment of Antonio by Shylock is given to us in picture than of the way in which a day was spent in Portia's house, and so on. Lastly we know only as much of the fate of Shylock after the trial scene

as of the marriage pomp and splendour of Portia.

The last proof assigned to show that the casket-story is the main theme, is equally good to show that the bond-story is the central theme. The bond-story too, begins in the first scene where Antonio is forced to get money for his friend, and it continues down to the last scenes where the rescued Antonio enjoys the comic situation of the newly married couples.

In short, there are as many proofs to show that the bond-story is the main theme as there are for the other side; and all these proofs arise out of the application of the same tests and laws. We must therefore conclude that Mr. Boas is correct in saying that each solution has been found inadequate.

B. R. VISWANATHAN,
II U. Class.

Malabar and the Origin of the Nayars.

To

THE EDITOR.

SIR,

In the article under the above heading in your last issue, it is stated that in Malabar there are only four classes of people; namely, the Eastern Brahmins, the Nambudris, the Nayars, and the lower castes, such as Pariahs and Pulavans.

Does the writer ignore other classes of people in Malabar and among them two potential elements of Kerala, the Mahomedans and the Christians? Perhaps he considers Christians and Mahomedans as *converts*, and therefore in their origin either Brahmans, or Nambudiris, or Nayars, or others of the inhabitants of Kerala. Even granting this, though it is another question altogether, Christians and Mahomedans are two predominant elements in modern Malabar, and one cannot but be amazed at the omission of them in the interesting paper befors us.

The following table will, I am sure, justify me in claiming for them a right to be mentioned.

Name of Places.	Brahmans, Nambudiris, Nayars, and other Hindus.	Christians.	Mahomedans.
Travancore ..	2,035,615	697,387	190,566
Cochin ..	5,075	9,963	4,210
Calicut ..	42,744	4,007	30,158
Tellicherry ..	15,252	1,671	10,958
Cannanore ..	11,711	3,180	12,893

M. P. MATHEW.
III U. Class.

The Reply.

I have not ignored, nor is it possible for any one to ignore, the "rights of other classes of people" to be reckoned as the present inhabitants of Kerala. My omission was due to two reasons.

1. The origins of the Moplahs and of the Christians are very controversial subjects into which I did not want to plunge. I am not yet sure, whether both of those classes are converted descendants of the early inhabitants of the country, or descendants of Arab and Syrian settlers respectively. Hence I thought it best to omit mention of them.

2. Another reason for the omission of these and of others was that the theories of their origin have no special bearing on my subject. My subject is the antiquity of Kerala and the origin of the Nayars. I enumerated only those classes the theories of whose origin, I thought, would be of some use to my purpose.

It would be 'amazing' for one to omit mention of such "potential classes" of the present inhabitants of the country, but only in an enumeration of *all the* various classes of the present population. But that enumeration was not my purpose.

K. S. UNNI,
II. Honours Class

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N. Venkataraman, B.A.

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